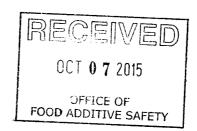
GRAS Notice (GRN) No. 603 http://www.fda.gov/Food/IngredientsPackagingLabeling/GRAS/NoticeInventory/default.htm ORIGINAL SUBMISSION

September 28, 2015

Office of Food Additive Safety Attn: Mr. Richard Bonnette, HFS-255 Center for Food Safety and Applied Nutrition Food and Drug Administration 5100 Paint Branch Parkway College Park, MD 20740



Reference: Phagelux GRAS Application for SalmoPro®

Dear Mr. Bonnette

In accordance with proposed 21 CFR 170 36 (Notice of a claim of for exemption based on GRAS determination) published in the Federal Register (62 FR 18938), Phagelux is submitting, in triplicate, a GRAS notification for the bacteriophage cocktail SalmoPro® for bio-control of Salmonella enterica in food.

Please let me know if you have any questions.

Best regards



Rosemonde Mandeville, M.B., Ch.B.; PhD

Chief Scientific Officer

Email: mandeville@phagelux.com

Cell: 514-246-5329

Phagelux (Canada) Inc. 6100 Royalmount, Montreal, Quebec, H4P 2R2, Canada Tel: 514-496-7722; Fax: 514-496-1521

* (c")

OCT 0 7 2015

OFFICE OF
FOOD ADDITIVE SAFETY

PhageLux GRAS Notification: SalmoPro®

E S

Table of Contents

Section 1: Gras Exemption Claim	3
1.1 Name and address of the Notifier	4
1.2. Common or usual name	4
1.3. Conditions of use	4
1.4. Basis for the GRAS determination	4
1.5. Availability of Information	4
Section 2: Identity and specifications of SalmoPro®	5
2.1. Identity and host range	5
2.2. Phage identity	5
2.3. Host identity	6
2.4. Method of Manufacturing	6
2.5. Specifications	8
2.6. Characteristic properties	8
2.7. Potential human toxicants	10
2.8. Shelf life	10
2.9. Self-limiting levels of use	10
Section 3: Basis of Determination of GRAS: by scientific procedures	10 10 11 14 14 21 22 23
References	25
Appendices: Efficacy Data	31
Appendix 1: Study Number # PL15-045	
Appendix 2: Study Number # PL15-196	
Appendix 3: Study Number # PL15-197.	
Appendix 4: Study Number # PI 15-191	60

Phagelux (Canada) Inc. 6100 Royalmount, Montreal, Quebec, H4P 2R2, Canada Tei: 514-496-7722: Fax: 514-496-1521

SECTION 1

GRAS EXEMPTION CLAIM

Claim of Exemption from the Premarket Approval Requirements Pursuant to Proposed 21CFR§170.36 (c) (1).

The bacteriophage cocktail, SalmoPro® containing bacteriophages BP-63 and BP-12, was determined by Phagelux Inc., to be generally recognized as safe, through scientific procedures, and is exempt from premarket approval requirements under the intended use conditions described within this notification. The following sections are describing the basis for this finding.

28,2015

(b) (6)

Phagel x Inc.
Name and Address of Notifier

Rosemonde Mandeville Chief Scientific Officer Phagelux (Canada) Inc. 1600 Royalmount, Montreal, Quebec, H4P 2R2, Canada Email: mandeville@phagelux.com

Email: manaev me a phagena.com

Phone: 514-246-5329

1.2 Common or Usual Name

Phagelux Inc. produces a Salmonella-specific bacteriophage cocktail under the trade name SalmoPro®.

1.3 Conditions of use

SalmoPro® is intended for use as an antimicrobial processing aid to control Salmonella on food, when applied to food surfaces up to 1x10⁸ PFU (Plaque Forming Units) per gram of food.

1.4 Basis of the GRAS Determination

Pursuant to 21CFR§170.36 (c) (1) proposed rule, Phagelux (Canada) Inc. has determined that SalmoPro® is GRAS through scientific procedures.

1.5 Availability of Information

The data and information that are the basis for Phagelux (Canada) Inc. determination of GRAS for SalmoPro® are available for review and copying by FDA or will be send to FDA upon request, made to:

Rosemonde Mandeville
Phagelux (Canada) Inc.
6100 Royalmount, Montreal
Quebec, Canada, H4P 2R2

Email: mandeville@phagelux.com

Phone: 514-246-5329

SECTION 2.

IDENTITY AND SPECIFICATIONS OF SALMOPRO®

2.1. IDENTITY AND HOST RANGE

SalmoPro® consists of a mixture of equal concentrations of two Salmonella-specific lytic bacteriophages (hereinafter referred to as "monophage(s)". Each of these monophages is specifically effective against a wide host range of Salmonella enterica serotypes. These phages were isolated by Phagelux (Canada) scientists from farms in the US and Canada.

The current SalmoPro® is a liquid made up of equal parts of two monophages (BP-63 and BP-12 Triumvirate), which are produced and purified separately and mixed in equal concentrations. The commercial product SalmoPro® has a minimal titer of 1×10^9 PFU/mL. This solution is concentrated and will be diluted with water at application sites by a factor of 10 to ensure application rate at a maximum of 1×10^8 PFU/g of food.

Host range studies were conducted by Phagelux scientists (on 150 strains of Salmonella) and by an independent 3rd party, Dr. Ran Wang (Nanjing, China), on more than 310 strains of Salmonella. SalmoPro® was shown to be Salmonella specific and has a broad host range. Lytic activity was demonstrated on over 95% of the tested Salmonella enterica strains and non-serotyped strains. The tested S. enterica strains included (but not limited to) strains of Typhimurium, Enteritidis, Hadar, Heidelberg, Infantis, Ohio, Kentucky, Derby, Newport, Indiana, California, San Diego, Minnesota, Agona, Anatum, Brandenburg, Shwartzengrund, Krefeld, Mbandaka, Putten, Tennessee, Thompson, Urbana, Senftenberg, Worthington, Panama, Houtenae, Wandsworth, Abortusequi, Pullorum, Javiana, Braenderup, Muenchen, Paratyphi A, Paratyphi C, Newington, Oraniemburg, Nchanga, Dublin, Hartford, Montevideo, Chester, Bareilly, Haardt, Galliinarum, Diarizonae, Pomona, Altona, Brendeny, London, Virchow, Lille, Litchfield, Poona, and Saintpaul.

SalmoPro® was also tested over more than 50 non-Salmonella enterica strains and did not show any lytic activity, except for a few non-pathogenic E. coli. Salmonella is known to be phylogenetically closely related to E. coli bacteria (Bern & Goldberg, 2005). The tested non-Salmonella strains included (but not limited to) Staphylococcus aureus. Pseudomonas aeruginosa, E. coli, Burkholderia cepacia, Citrobacter freundii, Enterobacter aerogenes, Enterobacter cloacae, Klebsiella pneumonia, Listeria monocytogenes, Staphylococcus epidermidis, Proteus mirabilis, Serratia marcescens, and Streptococcus agalactiae.

2.2. PHAGE IDENTITY

Both monophages were isolated by Phagelux (Canada) scientists from farms in the US and Canada. Each phage was fully characterized by a variety of methods, including electron microscopy, polymerase chain reaction (PCR), full-genome analysis, lytic activity against a large number of Salmonella strains, lytic activity against non-Salmonella-related bacteria strains (pathogenic and non-pathogenic).

Name:

BP-63

Order: Family:

Caudovirales

Properties:

Myoviridae

rties: Double-stranded DNA, lytic

Name:

BP-12 (triumvirate BP-12A, BP-12B, BP12C)

Order:

Caudovirales

Family:

Podoviridae/Siphoviridae*

Properties:

Double-stranded DNA, lytic

BP-12A and BP-12B are Caudovirales from *Podoviridae* family, whereas BP-12C is Caudovirales from *Siphoviridae* (Flagella-specific) family.

2.3. HOST IDENTITY

Both monophages are produced in non-pathogenic *E. coli*: BP-63 in 8N2 and BP-12 in BL-21. Underlying the choice of using non-pathogenic *E. coli* strains than *Salmonella enterica* strains is the lack of enterotoxins and virulence plasmids in these *E. coli* strains. The other fact is the significant reduction of risks for personnel in the production facility.

As tested by an independent 3rd party (National Research Council of Canada, Montreal, Quebec), microarrays hybridization confirmed that both non-pathogenic *E.coli* strains (8N2 and BL-21) do not contain any virulence genes associated with the most abundant pathotypes of *E. coli*. Data generated clearly demonstrated that both host bacteria do not contain any virulent plasmids associated with E_EC (STEC, EPEC (Typical and Atypical Pathogenic E. coli), EHEC, EAEC, and ETEC), EXPEX (MNTEC, UOEC, SPEC, and UPEC SAMPLES) or Incomplete EXPEC.

Undesirable host-derived components including host DNA and proteins (LPS or endotoxins) are removed by ion-exchange chromatography and will be described in Section 2.4.

2.4. METHOD OF MANUFACTURING

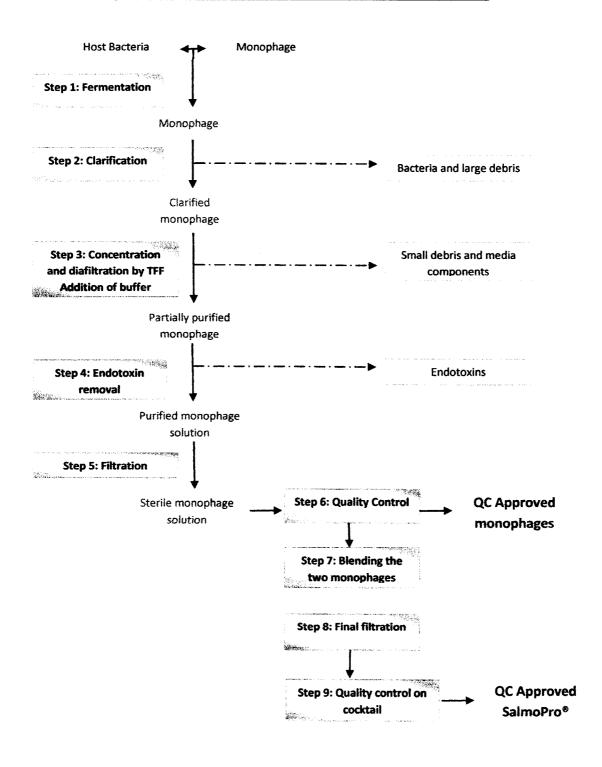
Batches of the two monophages are produced separately by aerobic fermentation using a broth media which is animal-product free. Initially, each of the host bacterium (non-pathogenic *E. coli*) is grown from a working bank sample (itself derived from the master bank) to a pre-determined optical density (OD) in an animal-product free medium. Each monophage (from a working bank sample) is then added at a pre-determined multiplicity of infection (MOI; phage to bacteria ratio). The culture is incubated under specific aeration and agitation conditions.

After a determined time of incubation, the culture is clarified by filtration to remove bacteria and the filtrate is washed with 0.1M sodium chloride buffer (TMN), and concentrated by tangential flow filtration (TFF). The concentrated product is then passed through an ion exchange column to remove endotoxin proteins.

Finally, the monophage solution is filter-sterilized and diluted with TMN buffer to reach the required product concentration of 1x10° PFU/mL. After each monophage solution has passed the Quality Control (QC) specification steps (Table 1), they are blended (1:1) to form SalmoPro® for commercialization, with a final product titer of 1x10° PFU/mL. SalmoPro® is sterile filtered and packaged into sterile packaging components and placed in refrigerated storage (2-6 °C).

SalmoPro® is diluted with water at the application site, to form the "working solution" with a maximum lytic activity of 1x10⁸ PFU/mL. Figure 1 is an overview of the manufacturing process.

Figure 1: Overview of SalmoPro® Method of Manufacturing



2.5. SPECIFICATIONS

Quality control consists of 2 steps: initially, each monophage batch needs to pass the specification tests (Table 1), and each batch of the final cocktail of SalmoPro® also needs to pass the specification tests. The Quality Control tests consist of analyzing:

- a) The Potency: Standard phage titration protocols are used to insure lytic activity. Method QC-101.1 is used for lytic activity determination.
- b) The Identity: Identity is tested by specific potency using 3 different Salmonella strains (including exclusive strains) and by specific PCR with predetermined reference profiles. Methods QC-101.1 and QC-103.1 are respectively used for identity determination. The strains are: S. Typhimurium (DT-104O), Hadar (SHA), and Enteritidis (SE-1), negative control is Mbandaka (SM).
- c) The Endotoxin Content: Endotoxin content is tested by using FDA-approved endpoint quantitative LAL assay (QCL-1000 TM Endpoint gel clot LAL type assay).
- d) The Bacterial sterility: Sterility is tested by enrichment of 1% of each batch in growth medium, followed by plating of the enrichment on elective agar plates (TSA agar). Absence of growth is the required result. Method QC-105.1 is used for sterility determination.

TABLE 1 QUALITY CONTROL OF PRODUCED BATCHES

PARAMETER	MONOPHAGE BATCHES	SALMOPRO® BATCHES
Potency	>1 x10 ⁹ PFU/mL	>1 x10° PFU/mL
Identity	Potency: matches reference profiles PCR: Matches reference bands	Potency: matches reference profiles PCR: Matches reference bands
Endotoxin Content	< 25,000 EU/mL for concentrated product containing 1x 10° PFU/mL	< 25,000 EU/mL for concentrated product containing 1x 10 ⁹ PFU/mL
Bacterial sterility	No growth after 14 days	No growth after 14 days

2.6. CHARACTERISTICS PROPERTIES

SalmoPro® is a clear to opalescent, odorless liquid with an average weight of the phages of $7x10^6$ Dalton since BP-12A is 39696 bp; BP-12 B is 43602 bp; BP-12 C is 60606 bp, and BP63 is 52437 bp. This implies that the phages weigh: 196341 bp x 37 = 7264617 Da= 7×10^6 Da = 1.16×10^{-17} g.

For 1×10^9 PFU/mL we estimate the weight of phages to be 1.16×10^{-8} g/mL, the remainder of the weight being attributed to 0.1M of sodium chloride (5.88 g/L). The monophage is roughly estimated to be 0.000197 % of the total weight of the concentrated liquid.

Three lots of SalmoPro® (1 x10° PFU/mL) were analyzed for typical physical and chemical composition by an independent 3rd party (Quality Compliance Laboratories, Inc.) and results are presented in Tables 2 and 3.

TABLE 2
PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

Physical properties	SalmoPro® Lot # 130815-S1	SalmoPro® Lot # 130815-S2	SalmoPro® Lot # 130815-S3
Odor	Odorless	Odorless	Odorless
Color	Opalescent	Opalescent	Opalescent
Physical State & Appearance	Liquid	Liquid	Liquid
pH	7.69	7.76	7.68
Special Gravity (vs. Water)	1.0079 g/cm ³	1.0081 g/cm ³	1.0083 g/cm ³
Solubility	Soluble in water	Soluble in water	Soluble in water

^{*} All tests were conducted by Phagelux (Canada) Inc. with the exception of Special Gravity, conducted by Quality Compliance Laboratories, Inc. (Ontario, Canada) under method USP38/NF33<841>.

TABLE 3
CHEMICAL COMPOSITION

Property/analysis/ composition	Method No./Ref.	SalmoPro® Lot # 130815- S1	SalmoPro® Lot # 130815- S2	SalmoPro® Lot # 130815- S3	<u>AVERAGE</u> Values ± SD
Total nitrogen	USP38/NF33	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.05 ± 0.005
(USP 461) (%)	<461>				
Total organic carbon	USP38/NF33	34	43	29	35.3 ± 7.1
(mg/L)	<643>				
Sulfur (mg/L)	QCL-11-0134.01	315	339	315	323 ± 14
Arsenic (µg/L)	QCL-15-	1	1	1	1.0 ± 0.0
Lead (µg/L)	0295.RD.00	2	2	1	1.7 ± 0.6
Iron (µg/L)		10	2	2	4.7 ± 4.6
Mercury (μg/L)		0	0	0	0 ± 0
Manganese (μg/L)		5	5	6	5.3 ± 0.6
Magnesium (mg/L)	QCL-11-0134.01	230	228	229	229 ± 1
Endotoxin (EU/mL per	QCL-1000	400 EU/mL	1600 EU/mL	6400 EU/mL	2800 ± 3174
1 x10° PFU/mL)					

^{*} All tests were conducted by Quality Compliance Laboratories, Inc. (Ontario, Canada), with the exception of Endotoxin, conducted by Phagelux (Canada) Inc. under method QCL-1000.

2.7. POTENTIAL HUMAN TOXICANTS

Endotoxin is the only known human toxicant present in SalmoPro® commercial product. The non-pathogenic *E. coli* strains used for manufacturing are Gram-negative bacteria. As with all Gram-negative bacteria, they produce bacterial endotoxins or lipopolysaccharide (LPS). Each batch of SalmoPro® is tested for LPS content to ensure it meets the release criteria. Endotoxins are further discussed below in Section 3.4.1. As tested, using microarray hybridization, the selected non-pathogenic *E. coli* (8N2 and BL-21) used for monophage production do not contain any virulence genes associated with the most abundant pathotypes of *E. coli*.

2.8. SHELF LIFE

The proposed shelf-life of SalmoPro® is one year when stored at 2-6 °C in a dark, UV-protected area.

2.9. SELF LIMITING LEVELS OF USE

The proposed use of SalmoPro® is as an antibacterial processing aid for foods that are at high risk to be contaminated with Salmonella enterica. The purpose of SalmoPro® is to significantly reduce or eliminate Salmonella enterica in the finished product.

The use of the product and potential intake would be self-limiting levels by several factors:

- 2.9.1. Due to the cost of the product, the manufacturer would use the minimum dose required to achieve the desired reduction levels of *Salmonella enterica*.
- 2.9.2. After the host bacteria Salmonella enterica contamination is depleted on the food, the phage will stop replicating and would gradually degrade; virions consist of only proteins and DNA.
- 2.9.3. Phages are susceptible to a variety of environmental factors, including sunlight (Wommack, et al., 1996), heat (Quiberoni, et al., 2003), and UV light (Rigvava, 2012). Exposure to these environmental factors will cause the number of phages to decrease.

SECTION 3

BASIS OF DETERMINING OF GRAS: BY SCIENTIFIC PROCEDURES

The bacteriophage components of SalmoPro®, as well as composition of the final cocktail will be assessed in detail.

3.1. BACKGROUND ON SALMONELLOSIS

Salmonellosis is a common cause of food-borne diseases worldwide, causing diarrhea (sometimes bloody), fever, abdominal cramps and even life-threatening infections. Salmonella is considered to be one of the principal causes of zoonotic disease reported worldwide. Salmonella enterica, Enteritidis and Typhimurium, are responsible for the majority of the outbreaks, and most events are reported to be due to consumption of contaminated eggs and poultry, pig, and bovine meats, respectively. Salmonella is also a known spoilage bacterium in processed foods.

Each year in the United States, Salmonella causes approximately 1.2 million illnesses, 23,000 hospitalizations, and 450 deaths. Direct medical costs are estimated to be \$2.4 billion annually, which constitutes a substantial economic hardship on national and local economies (Mead et al., 1999).

Salmonella are also an international health risk, causing an estimates 93.8 million illnesses globally, and approximately 155,000 deaths, each year (Majowicz et al., 2010). Salmonella infections are particularly severe in vulnerable persons such as young children, elderly people and immune-suppressed patients. According to the Food Safety and Inspection Service (FSIS) of the US Department of Agriculture (USDA), about 75% of the annual cases of human Salmonellosis are due to the consumption of contaminated poultry, beef and egg products (http://www.cdc.gov/vital sign/food safety). More recently, outbreaks have been associated with contamination of vegetables with fecal pathogens (Jain et al., 2009).

Fluoroquinolones, such as Ciprofloxacin are strongly recommended for the treatment of severe infections. However, there are rising concerns with the increasing occurrence of multidrug-resistant *Salmonella* globally, particularly in Asia. The CDC is seeing resistance to ceftriaxone in about 3% of non-typhoidal *Salmonella* tested, and some level of resistance to ciprofloxacin in about 3%. About 5% of non-typhoidal *Salmonella* tested by CDC are resistant to 5 or more types of drugs (http://www.cdc.gov/salmonella/index.html).

Antibiotic-resistance will inevitably increase worldwide as the bacteria they are meant to kill mutate and multiply. Antibiotic-resistant pathogens constitute a worsening global health problem exacerbated by interconnected travel, antibiotic overuse, horizontal gene transfer, and bacterial evolution. New classes of antimicrobials are needed to treat these pathogens but the drug development pipeline is dry (Boucher et al., 2008; Friere-Moran et al., 2011). As a result, regulatory agencies worldwide have shown a renewed interest in novel biocontrol measures; (http://www.niaid.nih.gov/topics/antimicr...nts/arstrategicplan2014.pdf) and phages, are considered as the single most promising processing aid (Nilsson, 2014).

3.2. LYTIC PHAGES ARE GRAS

3.2.1. Lytic versus Lysogenic: All lytic phages are by nature GRAS

Phages can be classified into two broad categories: lytic (virulent) and lysogenic (temperate).

- Lytic phages are viruses that attack and kill specific bacteria, adhering to specific cell-surface proteins. Once attached to the bacterial host, phages inject their genetic material into the cytoplasm of the host cell, hijacking the bacterium's replication machinery via the expression of specific enzymes encoded by the phage genome, which redirects the bacterial synthesis machinery to reproduction of the new phage particles. The production of phage's enzymes in the later stage, such as lysins and holins, induce destruction of the cell membrane, enabling the newly formed virions to burst out from the lysed bacterial host cell into the extracellular environment. The lytic cycle of the virulent phages fit the class of 'natural antimicrobial controlling agents'.
- Temperate phages, in addition to being capable to enter the lytic cycle, possess the ability to persist as a Prophage in the genome of their bacterial host in the lysogenic cycle. The phage genome remains in a repressed state in the host genome and is replicated as part of the bacterial chromosome until lytic cycle is induced. Hence, temperate phages are not suitable for direct therapeutic use as they may mediate transduction by transferring genetic material of one bacterium to the other.

The biology of lytic phages has been exhaustively studied, demonstrating their safety. Development of recent techniques and the power of comparative genomics are moving us towards more satisfying answers about bacteriophages' biology and understanding the bacteria-phage interaction (Koskella & Meaden, 2013). These studies have clearly shown that phages are obligate intracellular parasites of bacteria and are not infectious or toxic to humans or other mammals.

The host range of a bacteriophage, defined by which bacteria strains can be infected, depends on the host cell surface receptor (proteins, lipopolysaccharide, or other surface components) recognized through functional receptors located on their tail extremity (Brüssow & Kutter, 2005). Many phages are known to be highly specific for their receptors and are therefore characterized by a narrow host range, limiting their infectivity to a single species or to specific bacterial strains within a species (Ackermann & DuBow, 1987). However, some phages show a broader host range allowing them to infect a large number of strains within a bacterial species, the application of such phages may help prevent an incidence of foodborne diseases caused by pathogens like *Salmonella*, *Campylobacter*, *Listeria*, *Escherichia*, and others. For example Micreos' ListexTM, a phage preparation containing a single *Listeria* monocytogenes lytic phage, P100, is used for biocontrol of all *Listeria* strains in susceptible foodstuffs.

Bacteriophages serve as the natural counterbalance to bacteria and herewith have become the most abundant and diverse biological entities on Earth (10³⁰-10³²). They are approximately 10 times more abundant than bacteria and archaea. Bacteriophages are probably the most diverse micro-organisms identified on Earth, and in theory, all bacteria are susceptible to viral infection, often by several types of phages (Ackermann & DuBow, 1987).

3.2.2. The major advantages of lytic phages

- Lytic phages replicate exponentially and eradicate the bacteria rapidly regardless of their antibiotic-resistance profile.
- Most lytic phages display very limited host range even among specific bacteria and bacteria strains;
- Phages are self-replicating and self-limiting: In situ activity increases numbers (though only given favorable bacterial densities).
- Lytic phages have a reduced potential for bacterial development of resistance. They constantly evolve as do the bacteria and overcome mutating resistant bacteria strains.
- Antibiotic-resistant bacteria tend to retain phage sensitivity
- Phages are natural products: Potential appeal to natural medicinal market; Public perception of use of phages as antibacterials seemingly is positive
- Phages have low inherent toxicity; virions consist of only proteins and DNA
- Phages eliminate pathogens more rapidly and effectively than standard antibiotics
- Phages can be grouped in cocktails and can be used with other agents: Versatility in formulation development and combination with other drugs including antibiotics.
- Certain phages, unlike most chemical antibiotics, can be relatively good at biofilm clearance

Phages present a viable alternative and, potentially, the last resort for the treatment of antibiotic-resistant pathogens.

3.2.3. Phages as biocontrol agents of Salmonella.

Ensuring food safety is a complex process that depends on the implementation of a wide range of coordinated control measures at all levels of the food production chain (based on the farm-to-fork principle). Among the various approaches of food safety currently under exploration, bacteriophages have emerged as a novel tool for the biocontrol of bacterial contamination in foods. In the following sections, we will focus on the biocontrol of Salmonella.

Studies on the Pre-harvest control of Salmonella spp:

Several researchers demonstrated the use of bacteriophage as a pre-harvest intervention to decrease S. enterica concentration in poultry (Andreatti et al, 2007; Atterbury et al, 2007; Bardina et al, 2012). The administration of

phages prior to challenge and the continuous dosing of phages were able to achieve a significant reduction of Salmonella in the animals over time. Bardina et al. used a cocktail of three bacteriophages (UAB_Phi20, UAB_Phi78 and UAB_Phi87) against Salmonella Enteritidis & Typhimurium in both mouse and chicken. The cocktail treatment achieved a 50% survival of the mouse model when it was administered simultaneously with infection and at 6, 24 and 30 h post-infection. A more significant reduction of Salmonella concentration in chicken cecum was observed when the cocktail was administered a day before infection followed by continuous dosing after infection.

These results were supported by other studies (Andreatti et al, 2007) in which cocktails of 4 different phages (CB4Ø) and 45 bacteriophages isolated from wastewater plant (WT45Ø) showed a significant reduction of S. Enteritidis in cecal tonsils of chicks after 24 h post-infection but persistent reduction was not observed after 48h post infection, suggesting that continuous dosing is required to sustain the efficacy of bacteriophage in reducing Salmonella colonization in poultry. Furthermore, several studies based on the combination use of bacteriophage and competitive exclusion products have been performed to reduce Salmonella colonization in experimentally induced infection in chickens (Toro et al., 2005; Borie et al., 2009). These studies concluded that the combination of both types of biocontrol agents (bacteriophage and exclusion products) can be an effective approach to reduce Salmonella colonization in poultry.

Interestingly, bacteriophage therapy can play a role in preventing horizontal transmission of the Salmonella between livestock, Lim et al. (2012) showed that ϕ CJ07, a virulent bacteriophage, resulted in significant decrease in intestinal colonization of Salmonella Enteritidis in both infected chicks and the uninfected cohabitating chicks.

Studies on the Post-harvest control of Salmonella spp:

In the post-harvest control of Salmonella, promising results were obtained when bacteriophages were used to control the growth of Salmonella on ready-to-eat foods, such as chicken skin, pig skin, egg products, and cheese (Guenther et al., 2009; Hooton et al., 2011) and fresh produce. For example, Guenther et al. (2012) described the application of the bacteriophage FO1-E2, to control the growth of Salmonella Typhimurium in some ready-to-eat foods such as cooked and sliced turkey breast and egg yolk. Hungaro et al. (2013), used a bacteriophage cocktail and chemical agents such as dichloroisocyanurate, peroxy acetic acid and lactic acid to control Salmonella Enteritidis on chicken skin under simulation of an industrial condition. The authors concluded that bacteriophages may be employed as an alternative biocontrol agent for Salmonella in poultry industrial setting due to the similar efficacy of the bacteriophage demonstrated in reducing the Salmonella Enteritidis on chicken skin when compared to other chemical agents.

Magnone et al. (2013) found that combined treatment of fresh vegetables (phage application before storage at 10°C and levulinic acid produce wash after storage at 10°C) was more successful in reduction in bacterial count (E. coli 0157:H7, Shigella spp. and Salmonella) in cases where one-step treatment did not bring satisfactory results.

As in previously described trials based on reduction in $E.\ coli$ O157:H7 in lettuce, similar attempts with Salmonella Enteritidis and Typhimurium serovars were made (Spricigo et al., 2013). Fresh-cut romaine lettuce were contaminated by Salmonella Enteritidis or by Salmonella Typhimurium (10^5 CFU/mL for 5 min). During three-phage cocktail treatment at room temperature (10^9 PFU/mL), the number of bacterial cells was evaluated after 30 and 60 min. In all examples, the phage cocktail significantly (P < 0.05) reduced Salmonella concentration.

Cutting fresh fruits for commercial purposes deprives them of peel and rind, which constitute a natural barrier against bacterial pathogens. Leverentz et al. (2001) state that Salmonella Enteritidis populations can survive on fresh-cut melons and apples, showing increased growth with increasing temperature. The fruit slices after

contamination with 25 µl of Salmonella suspension (106 CFU/mL) were treated with 25 µl of a phage mixture (2x10¹⁰ PFU/ mL, diluted before application to 108 PFU/mL) consisting of four lytic phages obtained from Intralytix, Inc. Slices were incubated at 5, 10 and 20°C, and the number of Salmonella cells was measured at 0, 3, 24, 48, 120 and 168 h after phage inoculation. During examination, phage persistence was much higher on melon slices and decreased to a non-detectable level after 24 h on apple slices. Further investigation showed that low pH of apples (4.2) was a possible factor inhibiting phage survivability. In contrast, the Salmonella strain survived at all pH and temperature regimes. Moreover, at 20°C, its population started increasing 3 h after inoculation on both melon and apple slices. Phages were able to significantly reduce Salmonella populations only on melon slices (greater reduction than the use of chemical sanitizers), but no significant reduction of Salmonella was observed on the contaminated apple slices. Overall, phages seemed to be pH sensitive during treatment. More recently Zinno et al. (2014) demonstrated appreciable Salmonella Typhimurium inactivation, in the order of 2 log cycles, using phage P22 in different food matrices: liquid eggs, energy drinks, whole and skimmed milk, apple juice, chicken breast and chicken mince.

In conclusion, most studies point to the fact that various factors determine the efficacy of the phage application such as lytic as opposed to lysogenic, stability of the phage(s) under physicochemical conditions of the food (pH, aW), under its storage conditions (temperature) and the ratio of phages to host cells (MOI). While efficacy of specific phages of Salmonella and Campylobacter spp. at refrigerated temperatures has been investigated, the required dose of phage is relatively high and may incur regulatory difficulties. The majority of studies examine the lytic activity of the phage at the optimum growth temperature of the host pathogen. The phage broad host range is also another important issue to consider in the design of phage applications. To avoid emergence of resistance, a phage cocktail is also important.

3.3. GRAS STATUS OF STARTING MATERIAL

All ingredients used in the manufacturing process are animal-product free, GRAS substances or food ingredients.

Select Phytone UF, ultra-filtered papaic digest of soybean meal http://www.bdbiosciences.com/documents/Phytone_Soytone.pdf)

NaCl: Sodium Chloride is a GRAS substance according 21 CFR regulation #182-70

MgSO4: Magnesium Sulfate is a GRAS substance according 21 CFR regulation #184-1443

Industrial production may require addition of glucose (dextrose, α-D-glucose), and glycerol. Glycerin is currently listed as GRAS in the Code of Federal Regulations (CFR) as a multiple purpose GRAS food substance (21CFR 182.1320).

Antifoam emulsion Xiameter AFE-1510: water, polydimethyl siloxane, polyethylene glycol, sorbitan tristearate

Host strains: Non-pathogenic E. coli, see section 2.1 for details.

Monophages: Lytic phages are generally recognized as being safe and numerous phage solutions are already approved either as GRAS product or by other regulatory authorities (see section 3.5 for details). In particular, SalmoPro® was determined to be generally recognized as safe by Phagelux (Canada) Inc. through scientific procedures (the present document).

14

Tel: 514-496-7722; Fax: 514-496-1521

3.4. SAFETY

SalmoPro® is a mixture of 2 monophages (active ingredients), added salts and residual fermentation by-products. Sections below are presenting the safety of these ingredients or residuals.

3.4.1 LPS (only toxic by-products known)

Within the manufacturing process, the only known toxic ingredient is the LPS released from the non-pathogenic *E. coli* host bacteria (LPS is a component of the outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria). As presented in section 2.3, the non-pathogenic *E. coli* host bacteria was tested for absence of undesirable genes.

During the manufacturing process, a specific step (ion exchange chromatography) was added to remove endotoxins, to ensure a final concentration of less than 25,000 EU/mL in a 1x10⁹ PFU/mL phage preparation, as assessed by QC procedure for each monophage lot and SalmoPro® lot (Table 3).

3.4.2. Phages are Non-toxic

All available data indicate that the oral consumption of phages (even at high levels) is entirely harmless to humans. Safety studies have been performed for example with the Listeria-phage P100, in which rats were fed high doses of phages with no measurable effects compared to the control group (Carlton et al., 2005). A study with E. coli phages, both in mice and in human volunteers, also showed no significant effects on the test subjects (Chibani-Chenoufi et al., 2004; Bruttin & Brussow, 2005). In our hands (Murthy et al., 2002; Mandeville et al, 2003), pre-treatment of piglets with bacteriophages three hours prior to bacterial challenge, or treatment at the onset of diarrhea, demonstrated a statistically significant reduction in the severity of diarrhea in phage-treated animals. No adverse effects such as fever or any other adverse reactions were observed with these treatments. In these studies, and in contrast to antibiotics, phages seemed to have little effect on the E. coli occurring in the animals' intestinal flora.

3.4.3 Phages are ubiquitous in the environment

Whether found in the soil (Gomez & Buckling, 2011; Griffiths et al., 2011), the ocean (Marston et al., 2012) or the human body (Smillie et al. 2011), bacteriophages play a key role in shaping bacterial population dynamics, serving as the natural counterbalance to bacteria. Phages have been or can be isolated from virtually any aquatic or terrestrial habitat where bacteria exist. A single drop of seawater can hold literally millions of phages (Wommack & Cowell, 2000). The abundance of phages in the environment and the continuous exposure of humans to them, explains the extremely good tolerance of the human organism to phages.

The human gut contains approximately 10⁵ bacteriophages (the phageome) (Dalmasso, 2014) having been consumed by humans via various foods. In this context, bacteriophages have been commonly isolated from a wide variety of foods and food products; including carrots (Endley et al., 2003); cheese (Gautier et al., 1995), meat (Atterbury et al., 2003; Hsu et al., 2002), with fermented foods like wine (Poblet-Icart et al., 1998), yogurt (Kilic et al., 1996) and Sauerkraut (Lu et al., 2003) having especially high number of these phages. In one study (Lu et al., 2003) 26 different phages were isolated from the product of 4 different Sauerkraut fermentation plants. Phages infecting Propionibacterium freudenreichii have been isolated from Swiss cheese at levels of up to 7 x 10⁵ PFU/g (Gautier et al., 1995). In Argentina, phages infecting thermophilic lactic acid bacteria have been isolated from dairy plant samples at numbers up to 10⁹ PFU/mL (Suarez et al., 2002). Also Campylobacter phages have been isolated at levels of 4 x 10⁶ PFU/g from chickens (Atterbury et al., 2003) and Brochothrix thermosphacia phages from beef (Greer, 1983).

In humans, phages have been isolated from dental plaques (Delisle & Donkersloot, 1995), feces (Gantzer et al., 2002; Grabow et al., 1995), saliva (Bachrach et al., 2003) and vagina (Kilic et al., 2001). Phages were shown to be present in municipal water supplies of large European cities, indicating resistance to physico-chemical methods of purification of drinking water (Weber-Dabrowska et al., 2014). This example clearly shows the continuous direct contact of humans with phages. Such widespread and frequent consumption of phages every day, supports the view that phages can safely be consumed and therefore deserve the GRAS status (http://www.cfsan.fda.gov/rdb/opa-g218.html.).

3.4.4. Circumventing phage resistance mechanisms

The prospect of using phages to combat bacterial infection in food has rendered the understating of the interactions between phages and their hosts crucial. Effectively controlling bacterial populations in bio-industries implicates a better understanding of phage resistance barriers and the evolutionary strategies that phages employ to circumvent them. Many bacterial antiviral mechanisms have been reported in the literature (reviewed by Labrie *et al.*, 2010), and can be classified in 4 categories depending on which step is targeted in the phage replication cycle. Interestingly, for every antiviral mechanism reported, a counter-mechanism has been uncovered, allowing the phages to overcome and persist. Table 4 summarizes the co-evolutionary host-phage mechanisms.

Bacteria can alter their cell surface to limit phage propagation by blocking phage receptors. In the case of Salmonella, phages can use a number of cell surface moieties as receptors, including glycolipids (O-and Viantigens), integral membrane proteins (e.g. OmpF, BtuB, and TolC), and flagella proteins (FliC, FljB, and FliK) (Ho et al., 2011; Chaturongakul & Ounjai, 2014). This variety in host receptors leads to wider possibilities in successful host-phage adsorption when using a cocktail of different phages. Moreover, phages have been shown to evolve to target new receptors by acquiring mutations in the genes encoding the receptor binding proteins or tail fibers. For example, OmpC porin is used as a receptor by Salmonella Gifsy and T4-like phages (Ho & Slach, 2011), while vitamin B₁₂ uptake protein BtuB is used by T5-like phages (Kim & Ryu, 2011). Although resistance to BtuB-targeting phages have been shown to develop in Salmonella, the trait is not heritable and progeny bacteria can revert and become susceptible to these phages again.

Bacteria can prevent phage adsorption by producing an extracellular matrix; the expression of surface molecules at the receptor site can limit or prevent phage access. However, many phages have been shown to possess a depolymerase which degrades secreted substances and unmask the receptors. In Salmonella, tail spike proteins of Siphophages and Podophages recognize and hydrolyze the O-antigen of LPS. Siphophage SSU5 can also use core oligosaccharides of LPS as receptors (Kim et al., 2014) making it a beneficial part of a cocktail against insensitive Salmonella populations capable of O-antigen glycosylation. It is thus important to note that phage-host interactions are not exclusive to single types of protein-receptor recognition and that bacterial hosts resistant to flagellatropic phages are sensitive to phages targeting BtuB and LPS. Cross-infection by different types of phages naturally limits the development and abundance of resistant strains.

Preventing phage DNA entry is another tactic used by both bacteria and phages to ensure their environmental fitness. Superinfection exclusion systems are used by prophages to confer immunity to their host again secondary infection by other incoming phages. In lysogenic *S. enterica*, expression of SieA and SieB proteins encoded by lysogenic Podophage P22, induces lysis of superinfected host cells and degradation of superinfecting phage genome.

When a phage manages to inject its DNA in its host, a restriction endonuclease can cut the invading foreign DNA at specific recognition sites. Moreover, restriction modification (RM) systems cluster with other antivirus defense

systems (toxin-antitoxin, abortive infection) and operate synergistically in order to increase the overall resistance to phage infection (Oliveira et al., 2014). It has recently been shown that a majority of novel motifs observed in Salmonella enterica serovars were modified by Type I RM systems (Pirone-Davies et al., 2015). Phages employ diverse strategies to escape these systems: (a) Some phage have few restriction sites in their genomes, or these sites are too far apart to be recognized by the restriction endonuclease; (b) the phage can be modified by the host metlytransferase (MTase) or acquire its own MTase, and thus be protected during replication of its DNA; (c) the phage can co-inject proteins that directly bind to the DNA and mask the restriction sites; (d) a phage protein can mimic the target DNA and sequester the restriction enzyme, or (e) a phage protein can activate the activity of the MTase or inhibit it by perturbing the REase-MTase complex (Samson et al., 2013).

Targeting and cleaving foreign DNA: CRISPR-Cas can target and cleave invading foreign phage DNA. Phages can circumvent this system by acquiring mutations in the phage protospacers or in the protospacer-adjacent motif (PAM). Some phages, such as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* lysogens, encode an anti-CRISPR protein that prevents the formation or blocks the action of the CRISPR-Cas complexes (Samson et al., 2013). Interestingly, new research shows that in *Salmonella*, the CRISPR-Cas locus has ceased undergoing adaptive events suggesting that the *Salmonella* CRISPR-Cas systems are no longer immunogenic (Shariat et al., 2015).

Abortive infection systems consist of two proteins, a toxin and an antitoxin. During phage infection, an imbalance in the toxin—antitoxin ratio or inactivation of the antitoxin results in liberation of the toxin, which is free to act on its target and inhibits bacterial growth, thus aborting phage infection. Phages can by-pass abortive-infection (Abi) systems, by acquiring certain mutations of genes involved in nucleotide metabolism or by encoding a molecule that replaces the bacterial antitoxin, thereby counteracting toxin activity and avoiding host death.

TABLE 4
CIRCUMVENTING PHAGE RESISTANCE MECHANISMS

Antiviral mechanisms		Phage evasion tactics	
Preventing phage adsorption	Blocking phage receptors	Diversity generating retroelement systems	
	Production of extracellular matrix	Extracellular polymer degradation mechanisms (i.e. lyases, hydrolases, and hasluronidases)	
	Production of competitive inhibitors	Recognition of multiple receptors	
Preventing phage DNA entry	Superinfection exclusion systems		
Cutting phage nucleic acid	Restriction-modification systems	Anti-restriction strategies (e.g. absence of endonuclease recognition sites by point mutations, acquisition of the cognate methylase gene, acquisition of a gene encoding internal proteins, acquisition of restriction alleviation mechanism encoded by ral, etc.)	
	CRISPR-Cas systems	Acquisition of simple point mutation (or deletion) in the targeted proto-spacer, or mutation in the conserved PAM of the phage genome.	
Abortive infection systems		Acquisition of point mutations (e.g. mutation in gene 1.2 and/or 10 in T7 to bypass PifA resistance mechanisms).	

3.4.5. Immune interactions

Treatment with phages can give rise to immunological reactions, depending on where the location of the infection is, and how the phages are administered. It is important to mention that each phage is unique; phage surfaces are covered with peptides that the body does not recognize. Moreover, phage titers fall rapidly after intravenous administration, mainly due to innate immunity and phagocytosis in the blood and liver, and less due to the adaptive immune system (Sokoloff *et al.*, 2000).

A number of studies reported that consumption of large amounts of phages did not lead to any immunological complications (Sarker et al., 2012; McCallin et al., 2013), and topical application has not shown any adverse effects (Wright et al., 2009; Merabishvili et al., 2009). Other internal organs, including the bloodstream, are however not natural environments for phages, and it has been suggested that phages may modulate both the innate and the adaptive immune system when administered intravenously (Merrill et al., 2006). They could affect free-radical production and phagocytosis (Przerwa et al., 2006).

Phages may inhibit interleukin (IL-2), tumor necrosis factor and, to some extent, Interferon-gamma (Gorski et al., 2012; Dabrowska et al., 2014). Phages were also shown to increase non-neutralizing antibodies, IgM and later IgG, and enhance the immune response (Biswas et al., 2002). Previous clinical and animal trials have, however, not resulted in serious immunologic reactions (Merrill et al., 2006; Skurnik et al., 2007), but the risk after intravenous phage therapy cannot be completely ruled out since all phages are different. It is therefore very important to test the immunological response of every single phage, particularly if intravenous therapy is being considered.

Despite these intriguing findings, virtually nothing is known about whether phages can influence innate and adaptive immunity during natural associations with mammals. Although there have been no reports of adverse effects or incidents resulting from the direct exposure to naturally occurring bacteriophage, in treating patients with phage there is reason for caution regarding potential immunological reactions perhaps associated with the lack of formulation purification. Phage preparations for therapy must, however, be purified and free from any toxic or allergenic substances emanating from the bacteria used for the propagation of the phage.

3.4.6. Determination of absence of undesirable genes from sequence

The Complete DNA genome sequences of phages BP-63 and BP-12 was performed by the A.A.C Genomic facility (University of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario, Canada) and deposited in the GenBank under accession number: KM366099 for BP-63. For the triumvirate BP-12, (BP-12A, BP-12B, and BP-12C); the accession numbers for these genes are KM366096; KM366097 and KM366098, respectively.

The size of the DNA and comparative studies of the complete DNA sequences demonstrates the uniqueness of these phages. Bioinformatic analysis of data generated on the genomic analysis of BP-63 and BP-12 sequences demonstrated the lack of harmful or undesired genes against a panel of virulence or transduction genes identified in GenBank.

3.4.7. Estimated daily dietary intake of Phages and by-products

The Economic Research Services of the USDA (2015) estimates that, in 2016, the per capita consumption of chicken will reach 90.1 lbs., and that of turkey will reach 16.2 lbs. accordingly, people will thus consume, on average, 106.3 lbs. of poultry per year. SalmoPro® is manufactured in a 10X concentrate to be diluted with water at the application site, to form a working solution containing a maximal phage concentration of 1x108 PFU/mL. Supplementary instructions regarding dilution and application rate will be provided to ensure that the final concentration of phages in food produce is always equal to, or below 1x108 PFU/g of food. SalmoPro® is intended to treat Salmonella contaminations, which are usually on the surface of the products.

3.4.7.1. Phages

Assuming that:

- 1. all chicken and turkey are treated with SalmoPro®,
- 2. the product will be applied on the final product, such as chicken breast filets, for a maximal surface to weigh ratio of 2 cm² per gram of poultry
- 3. The highest rate of application ($1x10^8$ PFU/g of poultry) is used.

Weight of poultry consumed per day:

(106.3 lbs. / 1 year) * (1 year / 365 days) * (1000 g/ 2.2 lbs.) = 132.4 g of poultry/day

Number of phages consumed per day:

$$(132.4 \text{ g/day}) * (1*10^8 \text{ PFU/cm}^2) * (2\text{cm}^2/\text{g}) = 2.64 \text{ x } 10^{10} \text{ phages/day}$$

Furthermore, SalmoPro® contains a mixture of BP-12 (143,904 bp) and BP-63 (52,437 bp) for a total weight of 7264617 Da

The total weight of phages consumed daily:

$$(2.64 \times 10^{10} \text{ phages/day}) * (7x10^6 \text{ Da}) \times (1.66 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}) = 3.07 \times 10^{-10} \text{ kg/day} = 0.3 \mu \text{g/day}$$

Assuming an average diet is 3kg/day, the dietary concentration of phages is

$$(0.3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ g/day}) / (3 \times 10^{3} \text{ g/day}) = 0.1 \text{ ppb}$$

This level is therefore, insignificant.

3.4.7.2 By-products

Phages are eluted from the anion exchange column using a solution containing 100 mM of NaCl for a total of 0.0058 g/mL. The eluted phage product is generally at concentrations higher than 10¹⁰ PFU/mL and is further

diluted to reach the required concentration of 1×10^9 PFU/mL. For 132.4 g of poultry a day and at a phage level of 1×10^8 PFU/g we can calculate the daily amount of NaCl consumed:

0.0058 g of NaCl/ mL x 132.4 g of poultry x 0.01 mL of SalmoPro® /g of poultry = 0.0077 g of NaCl

This amounts to 0.00003 g of sodium per day.

The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg (21 CFR § 101.9 (c) (9)). The amount of sodium contributed by SalmoPro® represents 0.00013% of the recommended daily allowance, is negligible, and would not change nutritional content labeling by the end-user.

3.4.7.3. Endotoxins

Bacterial endotoxins, found in the outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria are members of a class of phospholipids called lipopolysaccharides (LPS). As a consequence, endotoxins are found everywhere in the environment and consumed by humans on a daily basis. Also Gram-negative organisms releasing LPS are found in very high numbers in our intestines. In the bloodstream, endotoxins can lead to toxic shock syndrome and regulations exist for medicinal reparations that are injected.

No regulations exist for food, moreover foodstuffs could contain high levels of endotoxins. For example, Jay et al., (1979) found endotoxin levels in ground beef in ranges of 500-75,000 EU/g. Townsend et al., (2007) investigated the presence of endotoxins in infant formula in 75 samples collected from seven countries (representing 31 brands). The endotoxin levels ranged from 40 to 55,000 EU/g and did not correlate with the number of viable bacteria. Gehring et al., (2008) measured endotoxin in approximately 400 farm milk and shop milk samples and found levels ranging from 100,000 to 1,000,000 EU/mL of milk samples in Switzerland and Germany.

Additionally, Gram-negative organisms living in the oral cavity also produce endotoxin and Leenstra *et al.* (1966) showed that saliva contains approximately 1 mg of endotoxin/mL. In a nationwide study, Thorne *et al.* (2009) assayed 2,552 house dust samples, the weighted geometric mean endotoxin concentration ranged from 18.7 to 80.5 EU/mg for 5 sampling locations in the houses, and endotoxin load ranged from 4,160 to 95,000 EU/m².

Complete removal of endotoxin during the production process of SalmoPro® is not feasible. However, following removal of cellular debris and anion exchange chromatography, endotoxin levels are extremely low, and will not significantly contribute to the daily dietary intake of endotoxins by consumers.

The Limulus Amoebocyte Lysate (LAL) method was used to detect and quantify Gram-negative bacteria endotoxins (aka: lipopolysaccharides [LPS], or endogenous pyrogens) that may be present in biotechnological product.

The LAL method (Cape Cod pyrotell T) was used to detect endotoxin levels in each lot of SalmoPro® purified lots produced. The level of Endotoxin in the purified stocks was 150-25000 EU/mL for one treatment dose (10° PFU/mL). Using the worst case scenario, the maximum amount of endotoxin allowed for product release would be 2500 EU per 10° PFU/mL. We can calculate the daily consumption of endotoxins:

132.4g of poultry x 0.01 mL SalmoPro® /g of poultry x 2500 EU/mL of SalmoPro = 3310 EU of endotoxin per day.

rluman saliva contains approximately 1 mg of endotoxins/mL (Leenstra et al., 1996) which is equivalent to 1x10⁶ EU/mL. Saliva is produced at levels exceeding 500 mL/day, which amounts to 5x10⁸ EU/day. The maximum amount of SalmoPro® only constitutes 0.00066 % of the daily endotoxin load from saliva and is thus considered safe.

3.5. SUBSTANTIAL EQUIVALENCE TO PREVIOUSLY APPROVED PRODUCTS

The USFDA (1996) approval of Listeria-specific phage preparations as food additives several lytic phage products targeting various bacterial pathogens have already been designated GRAS and/or cleared for food safety usage by a number of regulatory agencies, including two GRAS approved phage products against *Salmonella*, as the presented SalmoPro®:

ListexTM

- ListexTM a phage preparation containing a single *Listeria monocytogenes* lytic phage, P100, used for biocontrol of Listeria in susceptible foodstuffs, is GRAS (GRAS Notice No.000218.)
- ListexTM is also listed by the USDA FSIS for use as processing aid for use on RTE meat products (FSIS Directive 7120.1).
- ListexTM is also approved as a processing aid for susceptible foodstuffs in many countries, including approval in Canada by Health Canada and FSANZ in Australia and New Zealand. The Dutch Ministry of Health has issued a formal statement confirming that ListexTM can be used as a processing aid. Additionally, ListexTM has been approved for use in Switzerland in cheese-making and also as processing aids in keeping with European legislation on food safety
- ListexTM is listed by the Organic Materials Review Institute (OMRI). This means that ListexTM may be used in the certified organic production of food processing and handling according to the USDA National Organic Program Rule

ListShieldTM

- ListShieldTM (formerly known as LMP-102), a phage preparation containing six lytic *Listeria monocytogenes*-specific phages, is FDA-cleared as food additive (21 CFRF§172.785);
- ListShieldTM is also listed by the USDA FSIS for use as processing aid with no labeling requirements when applied to various RTE meats and poultry products (FSIS Directive 7120.1).
- ListShield[™], is GRAS for direct application to fish and shellfish (including smoked varieties; e.g., smoked salmon), fresh and processed fruits, fresh and processed vegetables, and dairy products (including cheese) (GRN No. 528).
- ListShieldTM is also EPA-registered for use on non-food surfaces in food processing plants to prevent or significantly reduce contamination of *Listeria monocytogenes* (EPA registration #74234-1.)
- ListShieldTM is Health Canada approved for use on ready-to-eat meat and poultry, smoked salmon, freshcut apples, and long leaf lettuce (iLONO).
- ListShieldTM is National Food Service of Israel approved as a food processing aid for the treatment of ready-to-eat meat and poultry products (Ref: 70275202).

EcoShieldTM

• EcoShieldTM (formerly ECP-100TM), a phage preparation containing three lytic phages *E. coli* 0157:H7-specific phages, is FDA-cleared, through a "Food Contact Notification" or FCN, for use on red meat parts and trim intended to be ground (FCN No. 1018).for use as a food contact substance (FCN No. 1018).

- EcoShieldTM is also listed by the USDA FSIS as safe and suitable for use in the production of red meat parts and trim prior to grinding as processing aid with no labeling requirements (FSIS Directive 7120.1).
- EcoShieldTM, is Health Canada approved for use on red meat parts and trim prior to grinding (iLONO).
- EcoShieldTM, is National Food Service of Israel approved as food processing aid for the treatment of meat immediately before grinding (Ref: 70275202).

$AgriPhage^{TM}$

- AgriPhageTM, a phage preparation targeting *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *vesicatoria* and *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato*, is EPA-registered for use on tomatoes and peppers. AgriPhage can be applied directly as a foliar spray and can be used as a curative on symptomatic plants or preventively prior to visual signs of damage. (EPA Reg. No.67986-1)
- AgriPhage has been amended to now include organic usage on tomato and pepper plants as governed by the USDA National Organic Program (NOP).

AgriPhage-CMMTM

- AgriPhage-CMMTM, a phage preparation targeting Clavibacter michiganensis pv. michiganensis, is EPA-registered for use on tomatoes. AgriPhage-CMM can be applied directly as a foliar spray and can be used as a curative on symptomatic plants or preventively prior to visual signs of damage (EPA Reg. No.67986-6).
- The Canadian Pest Management Regulatory Agency (PMRA) has approved bio-pesticide AgriPhage-CMM for bacterial stem canker in tomato caused by Clavibacter michiganensis pv. michiganensis (30301).

FinalyseTM

• FinalyseTM, a phage preparation targeting *E.coli* 0157:H7, received USDA's Food Safety and Inspection Services approval for commercialization and application as a spray mist or wash on live animals prior to slaughter to decrease pathogen transfer to meat.

ArmamentTM

 ArmamentTM, a phage preparation targeting Salmonella, received USDA's Food Safety and Inspection Services approval for commercialization and application as a spray mist or wash on the feathers of live poultry prior to slaughter to decrease pathogen transfer to meat.

SalmonelexTM

• SalmonelexTM, a phage preparation containing two specific phages, S16 and FO1a, for use as antimicrobial to control *Salmonella* serovars in certain pork and poultry products at levels up to 10⁸ PFU/g of food was designated as GRAS (GRAS Notice No. GRN 000468).

SalmoFreshTM

- SalmoFreshTM, a phage preparation for controlling the foodborne bacterial pathogen Salmonella enterica, is GRAS for direct application onto poultry, fish and shellfish, and fresh and processed fruits and vegetables (GRN No. 435).
- SalmoFreshTM, is also FSIS-listed as safe and suitable antimicrobial for use in the production of poultry products as a processing aid with no labeling requirements (FSIS Directive 7120.1).
- SalmoFreshTM, is Health Canada approved as a processing aid for use on fish, shellfish, and fresh and process fruits and vegetables or on ready-to-eat poultry products prior to slicing and on raw poultry prior to grinding or after grinding (iLONO).
- SalmoFreshTM, is National Food Service of Israel approved as a as a food processing aid for the treatment
 of fish, shellfish, fresh and processed fruits and vegetables and poultry immediately before or after
 grinding, and on ready to eat products before slicing (ref: 70275202).

Biotector®

 BIOTECTOR® S1 phage product from CheilJedang Corporation is developed to replace antibiotics in animal feed. It is particularly efficient to control Salmonella Galliinarum (SG) and S. Pullorum (SP)

responsible for fowl typhoid and pullorum disease, respectively. While BIOTECTOR® S4 is the second phage product (additives in swine feed) which could specifically control Salmonella Typhimurium (ST).

3.6. EFFICACY DATA AT THE INTENDED LEVELS OF USE

The literature reports on multiple studies concerning the application of bacteriophages on chicken and turkey carcasses for the reduction of Salmonella spp. (Higgins et al., 2005; Fiorentin et al., 2005; Zinno. et al., 2014). Goode et al., (2003) studied the efficacy of lytic bacteriophages in reducing Salmonella spp. on chicken skin and showed a rapid 2 log reductions after storage for 48h, as well as rapid eradication of Salmonella Enteritidis at low levels of contamination. Wichard et al., (2003) reported a significant reduction (1.8-2.1 log) of Salmonella Typhimurium contamination of chicken frankfurters when treated with phage Felix-O1. Bigwood et al. (2008) showed that Phage P7 significantly reduced Salmonella Typhimurium levels by 2 log units at 5 °C and by 5.9 log units at 24°C in raw and cooked beef. Efficacy increased when the phage: bacteria ratio was increased to 10 000:1 and host density was high. Treatment with phage FO1-E2 (3×10⁸ PFU/g of food) reduced viable counts of S. Typhimurium from turkey deli meat (Guenther et al., 2012).

Sharma et al., (2015) showed a 1.3 log reduction in Salmonella load when phages were applied to the surface of turkey breast. However, no significant reduction of Salmonella Heidelberg (P > 0.05) was observed in ground turkey when turkey meat pieces inoculated with Salmonella Heidelberg were surface treated with phage preparation (10^7 PFU/g) before grinding. These findings indicate that the bacteriophage preparation was effective in reducing Salmonella on turkey breast cutlets as a surface treatment but did not cause any reduction of Salmonella Heidelberg in ground turkey.

Moreover, the USDA-FSIS has recently approved the use of a Salmonella lytic bacteriophage preparation $SalmoFresh^{TM}$) during processing of raw and ready-to-eat poultry products with phage concentration up to 10^7 PFU/g in the finished product. The product was able to achieve > 1 log unit (a maximal reduction of 1.9 log unit) reduction of susceptible strains. Their results agree with previously reported studies, where Salmonella did not grow at 4° C (therefore the phage is not amplified), and there was no prolonged phage activity after the initial application (Guenther et al., 2012). They clearly demonstrate that after the initial treatment and initial reduction of bacterial load, any remaining bacteria will grow out at similar growth rates as the untreated controls.

Based on the above results, we designed multiple comprehensive challenge studies to determine whether SalmoPro® would significantly reduce the population of different Salmonella strains using chicken parts. Commercial foods, such as chicken parts, are usually stored at 4 °C or remain at room temperature (25°C) with a short contact time. We show that the application of SalmoPro® to working levels of 1 x 10⁷ PFU/cm² to chicken breast trim contaminated with Salmonella strains results in >1 log unit reduction of Salmonella at room temperature (Appendix 1). Moreover, our results indicate that the phage cocktail (SalmoPro®) has a wider lytic range than the individual monophages. This is consistent with other published results (Hooton et al., 2011). Our results are also in accord with Guenther et al. (2012), and Micreos (SalmonexTM) where no amplification of phages (i.e. no significant reduction of bacterial load) was detected at 4 °C, and residual bacteria grew at similar growth rates as the untreated controls after the initial reduction in Salmonella population. This shows that SalmoPro® has no function in the final product and that it should only be considered as a processing aid.

3.7. SUMMARY SALMOPRO® AND GRAS

SalmoPro® is a Salmonella specific cocktail of two naturally occurring monophages (BP-63 and BP-12 triumvirale). A number of bacteriophage products for the biocontrol of pathogens have previously been GRAS-

approved. The current SalmoPro phage product is equivalent to other Salmonella specific phage preparation that were already GRAS-approved.

Based on genetic and biologic/chemical analysis as well as experimental challenges, scientific data are showing that the individual phages contained in SalmoPro® are safe:

- By nature : strict lytic phage devoid of harmful genes
- By manufacturing process controls: QC analysis of each batch ensures that SalmoPro® is effective, devoid of live contaminants (bacterial sterility testing) and has a minimal safe amount of residual LPS.

SalmoPro® is also shown to be effective in reducing Salmonella contaminations on chicken parts (Appendix 1).

Based on these findings and significant equivalence with the other GRAS-approved phage products, SalmoPro® should also be considered GRAS.

REFERENCES

Ackermann, H.W. & DuBow. M.S. (Eds.). 1987. Viruses of Prokaryotes: Volume 1, General Properties of Bacteriophages. Boca Raton, Florida: CRC Press.

Andreatti Filho, R.L, Higgins, J.P, Higgins S.E., et al. 2007. Ability of bacteriophages isolated from different sources to reduce Salmonella enterica serovar enteritidis in vitro and in vivo. Poult. Sci. 86: 1904-1909.

Atterbury, R.J., Van Bergen, M.A., Ortiz, F., Lovell, M.A., et al. 2007. Bacteriophage therapy to reduce salmonella colonization of broiler chickens. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 73: 4543-4549.

Atterbury, R.J., Connerton, P.L., Dodd, C.E., Rees, C.E. & Connerton, I...F. 2003. Isolation and characterization of *Campylobacter* bacteriophages from retail poultry. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 69: 4511-4518.

Bachrach, G., Leizerovici-Zigmond, M., Zlotkin, A, Naor, R. & Steinberg, D. 2003. Bacteriophage isolation from human saliva. Lett. Appl. Microbiol. 36: 50-53.

Bardina, C., Spricigo, D.A., Cortés, P., & Lagostera, M. 2012. Significance of the bacteriophage treatment schedule in reducing Salmonella colonization of poultry. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 78: 6600-6607.

Bern, M. & Goldberg, D. 2005. Automatic selection of representative proteins for bacterial Phylogeny. BMC Evolution. Biol. 5 (34): 1-17.

Bigwood T, Hudson JA, Billington C, Carey-Smith GV and Heinemann JA. 2008. Phage inactivation of foodborne pathogens on cooked and raw meat. Food Microbiol. 25:400-406.

Biswas, B., Adhya S., Washart, P., Paul, B., Trostel, A.N., Powell, B., et al. 2002. Bacteriophage therapy rescues mice bacteremic from a clinical isolate of vancomycin-resistant Enterococcus faecium. Infect. Immun. 70: 204–10

Boucher, H.W., Talbot G.H. Bradley, JS, Edwards J. et al. 2008. Bad bugs, no drugs: No ESKAPE! An update from the infectious disease society of America. Clin. Infec. Dis. 48:1-12.

Borie, C., Sanchez, M.L., Navarro, C., Ramirez, S., et al. 2009. Aerosol spray treatment with bacteriophages and competitive exclusion reduces *Salmonella enteritidis* infection in chickens. Avian Dis. 53: 250-254.

Brüssow, H. & Kutter, E. 2005. Phage ecology. In E. Kutter & A. Sulakvelidze (eds.) Bacteriophages: Biology and applications; pp 119-164. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press.

Bruttin, A. & Brüssow, H. 2005. Human volunteers receiving Escherichia coli phage T4 orally: a safety test of phage therapy. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 49 (7): 2874-2878.

Carlton, R.M.; Noordman, W.H.; Biswas, B.; de Meester, E.D.; Loessner, M.J. 2005. Bacteriophage P100 for control of Listeria monocytogenes in foods: genome sequence, bioinformatic analyses, oral toxicity study, and application. Regul. Toxicol. Pharm. 43 (3): 301-312.

Chaturongakul S. and Ounjai P. 2014. Phage-host interplay: examples from tailed phages and Gram-negative bacterial pathogens. Frontiers Microbiol. 5: 1-8

Chibani-Chennoufi, S., Sidoti, J., Bruttin, A., Kutter, E., Sarker, S.; Brüssow, H. 2004. In vitro and in vivo bacteriolytic activities of Escherichia coli phages: implications for phage therapy. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 48 (7): 2558-2569.

Dąbrowska, K., Miernikiewicz, B., Piotrowicz, A., Hodyra, K. 2014. Immunogenicity Studies of Proteins Forming the T4 Phage Head Surface. J. Virol. 88(21): 12551–1255.

Dalmasso M, Hill C, Ross RP. Exploiting gut bacteriophages for human health. 2014. Trends Microbiol. . 22(7): 399-405.

Delisle, A.L. & Donkersloot, J.A. 1995. Relationships among *Actinomyces naeslundii* (A. viscosus) bacteriophages isolated from sewage and the oral cavity. Microbial Ecology in Health Disease 8: 121-127.

Economic Research Service (ERS), U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA). Livestock, Dairy and Poultry outlook; July 2015. Retrieved from: http://www.ers.usda.gov/media/1871909/ldpm253.pdf

Endley, S., Lu, L., Vega, E, Hume, M.E & Pillai. S. D. 2003. Male-specific coliphages as an additional fecal contamination indicator for screening fresh carrots. J. Food Prot. 66: 88-93.

Fiorentin, L., Vieira, N.D., & Barioni Júnior, W. 2005. Use of lytic bacteriophages to reduce Salmonella Enteritidis in experimentally contaminated chicken cuts. Rev. Bras. Ciênc. Avícola 7: 255–260.

Friere-Moran, L., Aronsson, B., Manz, C., Gyssens, I.C., et al. 2011. Critical shortage of new antibiotics in development against multidrug-resistant bacteria - Time to react now. Drug Resist. Update. 14: 118-124.

Gantzer, C., Henny, J., & Schwartzbrod, L. 2002. Bacteroides fragilis and Escherichia coli bacteriophages in human feces. International J. Hygiene Environ. Health 205: 325-328.

Gautier, M., Rouault, A., Sonuner, P. & Briandet, R. 1995. Occurrence of *P. freudenreichii* phages in Swiss cheese. App. Environ. Microbiol. 61: 2572-2576.

Gehring, U., Spithoven, J., Schmid, S., Bitter, S., et al. 2008. Endotoxin levels in cow's milk samples from farming and non-farming families - the PASTURE study. Environ Int. 34(8):1132-1136.

Goode, D., Allen, V.M., Barrow, P.A. 2003. Reduction of experimental Salmonella and Campylobacter contamination of chicken skin by application of lytic bacteriophages. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 69: 5032-5036.

Gómez, P. and Buckling, A. 2011. Bacteria-phage antagonistic coevolution in soil. Science 332: 106-109.

Górski, A., Międzybrodzki, R., Borysowski, J., Dąbrowska, K., Wierzbicki, P., et al. 2012. Phage as a modulator of immune responses: practical implications for phage therapy. Adv. Virus Res. 83: 41-71.

Greer, G.G. 1983. Psychrotrophic *Brochothrix thermosphacta* bacteriophages isolated from beef. Appl. Environ. Microbiol: 46: 245-51.

- Grabow, W.O.K., Neubrech, T.W., Holtzhausen, C.S & Jofre, J. 1995. Bacterioides fragilis and Escherichia coli bacteriophages—Excretion by humans and animals. Water Sci. Technol. 31: 223-230.
- Griffiths, R.I.; Thomson, B.C.; James, P.; Bell, T.; Bailey, M.; & Whiteley, A.S. 2011. The bacterial biogeography of British soils. Environ. Microbiol. 13: 1642–1654.
- Guenther, S., Huwyler, D., Richard, S., Loessner, M.J. 2009. Virulent bacteriophage for efficient biocontrol of *Listeria monocytogenes* in ready-to-eat foods. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 75: 93-100
- Guenther, S., Herzig, O., Fieseler, L., Klumpp, J., Loessner, M.J. 2012. Biocontrol of S. Typhimurium in RTE foods with the virulent bacteriophage FO1-E2. Int. J. Food Microbiol. 154: 66-72.
- Higgins, J.P., Higgins, S.E., Guenther, K.L., Huff, et al... 2005. Use of a specific bacteriophage treatment to reduce Salmonella in poultry products. Poult. Sci. 84: 1141-1145.
- Ho, T.D., & Slach J.M. 2011. OmpC is the receptor for Gifsy-1 and Gifsy-2 bacteriophages of *Salmonella*. J. Bact. 183:1495-1498.
- Hooton, S.P., Atterbury, R.J., Connerton, I.F. 2011. Application of a bacteriophage cocktail to reduce Salmonella Typhimurium U288 contamination on pig skin. Int. J. Food Microbiol. 151: 157-163.
- Hungaro, M.H., Santos Mendonca, R.C., Gouvea, D.M., et al. 2013. Use of bacteriophage to reduce Salmonella in chicken skin in comparison with chemical agents. Food Res. Int. 52: 75-81.
- Hsu, F.C., Shieh, Y.S.C. & Sobsey. M.D. 2002. Enteric bacteriophages as potential fecal indicators in ground beef and poultry meat. J. Food Prot. 65:93-99.
- Jain, S., Bidol, S.A., Austin, J.L., Berl, E. et al. 2009. Multistage outbreak of *Salmonella Typhimurium and Saintpaul* infections associated with unpasteurized orange juice-United Sates 2005. Clin. Infect. Dis. 48: 1065-1071.
- Jay, J.M, Margitic, S., Shereda, A.L. & Covington H.V. 1979. Determining endotoxin content of ground beef by the Limulus amoebocyte lysate test as a rapid indicator of microbial quality. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 38(5): 885–890.
- Kilic, A.O., Pavlova, S.I, Ma, W.G. & Tao. L. 1996. Analysis of Lactobacillus phages and bacteriocins in American dairy products and characterization of a phage isolated from yogurt. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 62: 2111-2116.
- Kilic, A. O., Pavlova, S. I., Alpay, S. Kilic, S.S. & Tao, L. 2001. Comparative study of vaginal Lactobacillus phages isolated from women in the United States and Turkey: prevalence, morphology, host range, and DNA homology. Clin. Diag. Lab. Immunol. 8:31-39.
- Kim, M., Kim S., Park, B., & Ruy, S. 2014. Core lipopolysaccharide-specific phage SSU5 as an auxiliary component of a phage cocktail for Salmonella biocontrol. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 80:1026-1034.
- Kim, M., and Ryu, S. **2011**. Characterization of a T5-like coliphage, SPC35, and differential development of resistance to SPC35 in Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium and Escherichia coli. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 77:2042-2050

Koskella, B. and Meaden, S. 2013. Understanding bacteriophage specificity in natural microbial communities. Viruses 5:806-823.

Labrie, S.J., Samson, J.E., Moineau, S. 2010. Bacteriophage resistance mechanisms. Nature Reviews Microbiol. 8: 317-327.

Leenstra, T.S., van Saene, J.J., van Saene, H.K., Martin, M.V. 1996. Oral endotoxin in healthy adults. Oral Surg. Oral Med. Oral Pathol. Oral Radiol. Endod. 82(6):637-43.

Leverentz, B., Conway, W.S., Alavidze, Z., Janisiewicz, W.J., Fuchs, Y., et al. **2001.** Examination of bacteriophage as a biocontrol method for *salmonella* on fresh-cut fruit: a model study. J Food Prot. 64: 1116-1121.

Lim, T.H., Kim, M.S., Lee, D.H., Lee, Y.N., Park, J.K., Young, H.N., et al. 2012. Use of bacteriophage for biological control of *Salmonella Enteritidis* infection in chicken. Res Vet Sci. 93: 1173-1178.

Lu, Z., Breidt, F., Plengvidhya, V. & Fleming, H.P. 2003. Bacteriophage ecology in commercial Sauerkraut fermentations. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 69, 3192-202.

Magnone, J.P., Marek, P.J., Sulakvelidze, A. & Senecal, A.G. 2013. Additive approach for inactivation of *Escherichia coli O157:H7*, *Salmonella*, *and Shigella spp*. on contaminated fresh fruits and vegetables using bacteriophage cocktail and produce wash. J. Food Prot. 76: 1336–1341.

Marston, M.F., Pierciey, F.J., Shepard, A., Gearin, G., Qi, J., Yandava, C., et al. 2012. Rapid diversification of coevolving marine *Synechococcus* and a virus. PNAS. 109: 4544-4549.

Majowicz, S.E., Musto, J., Scallan, E. et al, 2010. International collaboration on Enteric Disease 'Burden of Illness' studies. The global burden of non-typhoidal Salmonella gastroenteritis. Clin. Infect. Dis. 50: 882-889.

Mead, P.S., Slursker, Dietz V. et al., 1999. Food-related illness and death in the United States. Emerg. Infect. Dis. 5: 607-625.

Merabishvili, M., Pirnay, J.P., Verbeken, G., Chanishvili, N., Tediashvili, M., Lashkhi, N., et al. 2009. Quality-controlled small-scale production of a well-defined bacteriophage cocktail for use in human clinical trials. PLoS ONE. 4:e4944.

Merrill, C.R., Scholl, D., Adhya, S. **2006.** Phage therapy. In: Calendar R, editor. The bacteriophages. pp. 725-41. NY: Oxford University Press

McCallin, S., Sarker, S., Barretto, C., Sultana, S., Berger, B., Huq, S., et al. 2013. Safety analysis of a Russian phage cocktail: from metagenomics analysis to oral application in healthy human subjects. Virology. 443: 187–96.

Murthy, K., Allain, B., Roman, J.L., Durand, S., Fairbrother, J., Quessy, S., Mandeville, R. 2002. Phage therapy: an innovative approach to treat antibiotic-resistant bacterial infections. Am. Ass. Swine Vet. 217-220.

Mandeville, R; Griffiths, M; Goodridge, L., McIntyre, L; & Ilenchuk, T.T. 2003. Diagnostic and Therapeutic Applications of Lytic Phages. Analytical Letters 36(15): 3241-3259.

Nilsson A.S. 2014. Phage therapy: constraints and possibilities. Uppsala J. Medical Sciences. 119: 192-198.

Oliveira, P.H, Touchon, M, Rocha, E.P. 2014. The interplay of restriction-modification systems with mobile genetic elements and their prokaryotic hosts. Nucleic Acids Res. 42(16):10618-31

Pirone-Davies, C, Hoffmann, M, Roberts, R.J., Muruvanda, T, Timme, R.E., Strain, E., et al. **2015** Genome-Wide Methylation Patterns in Salmonella enterica Subsp. enterica Serovars. PLoS ONE 10(4): e0123639.

Poblet-Icart, M., Bordons, A. & Lonvaud-Funel, A. 1998. Lysogeny of *Oenococcus oeni* (syn. *Leuconostoc oenos*) and study of their induced bacteriophages. Current Microbiol. 36: 365-369.

Przerwa, A., Zimecki, M., Świtała-Jeleń, K, Dąbrowska, K. et al. 2006. Effects of bacteriophages on free radical production and phagocytic functions. Medical Microbiol. Immunol.95 (3): 143-150.

Quiberoni, A. Guglielmotti, D.M., & Reinheimer, J.A. 2003. Inactivation of *Lactobacillus delbrueckii* bacteriophages by heat and biocides. Intl. J. Food Microbiol. 84: 51-62.

Rigvava, S., Tchgkonia, I. et al. **2012.** Comparative analysis of the biological and physical properties of *Enterococcus faecalis* bacteriophage vB-EfaS-GEC-EFS-3 and *Streptococcus mitis* bacteriophage vB-SmM-GEC-SmitisM-2. NRC Research Press: 59(1): 18-21.

Samson, J.E., Magadan, A.H., Sabri, M., Moineau, S. 2013. Revenge of the phages: defeating bacterial defenses. Nature Reviews Microbiol. 11:675-687

Sarker, S.A., McCallin, S., Barretto, C., Berger, B., Pittet, A.C., Sultana, S., et al. 2012. Oral T4-like phage cocktail application to healthy adult volunteers from Bangladesh. Virology 434: 222–32.

Shariat, N., Timme, R.E., Pettengill, J.B., Barrangou, R., & Dudley, E.G. 2015. Characterization and evolution of Salmonella CRISPR-Cas systems Microbiol. 161: 374-386

Sharma, C. S., Dhakal, J., Nannapaneni, R. 2015. Efficacy of Lytic Bacteriophage Preparation in Reducing Salmonella In Vitro, on Turkey Breast Cutlets, and on Ground Turkey. J. Food Protection 7: 1357-1362(6)

Skurnik, M., Pajunen, M., Kiljunen, S. 2007. Biotechnological challenges of phage therapy. Biotech. Lett. 29:995–1003.

Smillie, C.S.; Smith, M.B.; Friedman, J.; Cordero, O.X.; David, L.A.; Alm, E.J. 2011. Ecology drives a global network of gene exchange connecting the human microbiome. Nature 480: 241-244.

Spricigo, D.A., Bardina, C., Cortes, P. & Lagostera, M. 2013. Use of a bacteriophage cocktail to control Salmonella in food and the food industry. Int. J. Food Microbiol. 165: 169–174.

Suarez V., Moineau, S., Reinheimer J., & Quiberoni A. 2007. Argentinean Lactococcus lactis bacteriophages: genetic characterization and adsorption studies. J. Applied Microbiol. 104(2): 371-379.

Sokoloff AV¹, Bock I, Zhang G, Sebestyén MG, Wolff JA. 2000. The interactions of peptides with the innate immune system studied with use of T7 phage peptide display. Mol. Ther. 2 (2):131-139.

Thorne, P.S., Cohn, R.D., Mav, D., Arbes, Jr. S.J., & Zeldin, D.C. 2009. Predictors of Endotoxin Levels in U.S. Housing. Environ. Health Perspect. 117 (5): 763-771.

Toro, H., Price, S.B., McKee, A.S., Hoerr, F.J., Krehling, J., Perdue, M. 2005. Use of bacteriophages in combination with competitive exclusion to reduce *Salmonella* from infected chickens. Avian Dis. 49: 118-124.

Townsend, S., Caubilla-Barron, J., Loc-Carrillo, C., Forsythe, S. 2007. The presence of endotoxin in powdered infant formula milk and the influence of endotoxin and *Enterobacter sakazakii* on bacterial translocation in the infant rat. Food Microbiol. 24(1):67-74.

Weber-Dabrowska, B., Zaczek, M., DZiedzic, B., et al. 2014. Bacteriophages in green technology – the utilization of drinking water. In 'Industrial, medical, and environmental applications of microorganisms: current status and trends. *Ed. Mendez-Villas A.* pp: 500-504, Wageningen Academic Publishers.

Whichard, J.M., Sriranganathan, N. & Pierson, F.W. 2003. Suppression of *Salmonella* growth by wild-type and large-plaque variants of bacteriophage Felix O1 in liquid culture and on chicken frankfurters. J. Food Prot. 66:220–225.

Wommack, K.E., & Colwell. R.R. 2000. Virioplankton: viruses in aquatic ecosystems. Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev. 64:69-114.

Wommack, K.E., Hill, R.T., Muller, T.A., & Colwell. R.R. 1996. Effects of sunlight on bacteriophage viability and structure. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 62:1336-1341.

Wright, A., Hawkins, C.H., Anggard, E.E., Harper, D.R. 2009. A controlled clinical trial of a therapeutic bacteriophage preparation in chronic otitis due to antibiotic-resistant Pseudomonas aeruginosa; a preliminary report of efficacy. Clin. Otolaryngol. 34:349–57.

Zinno, P., Devirgilis, C., Ercolini, D., Ongenng, D. & Mauriello, G., 2014. Bacteriophage P22 to challenge Salmonella in foods. Intl. J. Food Microbiol. 191: 69-74.

Appendices: Challenge Studies

Appendix 1: Study Number # PL15-045

Appendix 2: Study Number # PL15-196

Appendix 3: Study Number # PL15-197

Appendix 4: Study Number # PL15-191

Appendix 1

Evaluation of the ability of SalmoPro® to reduce Salmonella contamination in experimentally contaminated chicken trim.

Study Number # PL15-045

Phagelux Canada Inc.

6100 Royalmount

Montreal, QC H4P 2R2

Table of contents

1. STUDY TITLE 34	Į.
2. STUDY DIRECTOR 34	Į.
3. STUDY PERSONNEL	ŀ
4. PERFORMING LABORATORY 34	ŀ
5. STUDY OBJECTIVE34	ŀ
6. TEST MATRIX	ı
7. SALMOPRO® LOT AND APPLICATION RATE35	j
8. BACTERIAL STRAINS USED TO EXPERIMENTALLY CONTAMINATE POULTRY	ś
9. MEDIA AND REAGENTS	j
10. GENERAL OUTLINE OF STUDY	Ś
11. RESULTS	;
11.1 Raw data	
11.2 Tabular presentation of results	
11.3 Graphical presentation of results	38
11.4 Statistical analysis	38
11.5 Brief discussion of results and study conclusions	4:
12. SUMMARY CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY 41	Ĺ
13. SIGNATURES	Ž

Evaluation of the ability of SalmoPro® to reduce Salmonella contamination in experimentally contaminated chicken trim when applied at a rate 1x10⁷ PFU/g.

2. STUDY DIRECTOR

Nancy Tawil, Ph.D.

3. STUDY PERSONNEL

The following personnel contributed to the conduct and reporting of the studies reported herein:

Name:	Title:	Role:
Nancy Tawil, Ph.D.	Chief Scientist	Study director
Annie Martineau	Research Scientist	Hands-on-research
Vitalie Stepanof	Research technician	Hands-on-research

4. PERFORMING LABORATORY

Phagelux (Canada) Inc. 6100 Royalmount Montreal, Quebec Canada, H4P2R2

5. STUDY OBJECTIVE

Determine the load reduction resulting from the application of 10⁷ PFU/g SalmoPro® to chicken meat pieces inoculated with artificially high levels of Salmonella (10² CFU/g).

6. TEST WATRIX

Chicken trims were obtained from a farm located near Montreal, Quebec, Canada. Samples were not washed or pre-treated prior to studies.

7. SALMOPROS LOT AND APPLICATION RATE

- SalmoPro ® lot # 20150813-1
- SalmoPro ® titer: 1x10⁹ PFU/mL
- The application rate was 0,1mL SalmoPro® at 10⁸ PFU/mL per gram of poultry for a total applied rate of 1x10⁷PFU/g poultry.

8. BACTERIAL STRAINS USED IN CHALLENGE STUDY

Each chicken sample was challenged with a cocktail containing 10² CFU/g Salmonella isolates as indicated below:

Cocktail (Serovars/Isolates [1:1 ratio])

- Salmonella Hadar (Sha-4)
- Salmonella Heidelberg (SH)

The total reduction in Salmonella bacterial load is evaluated.

9. MEDIA AND RENGENTS

- LB (Sigma, St-Louis, MO; catalog # L3022)
- Peptone water (OrganoTechnie; La Courneuve, France; catalog # E110)
- Brilliant green agar modified (BGA) (Sigma, St-Louis, MO; catalog #70134)
- PBS (HyClone, Thermo Scientific, Logan, Utah; catalog #SH30028-02)

10. GENERAL OUTLINE OF STUDY

- 1. Original trim pieces were cut into three smaller 10 g chicken trim test samples.
- 2. 1mL of the bacterial culture (cocktail) at 10³ CFU/mL was applied on the samples surface evenly. One sample was not treated with bacterial culture, as the uncontaminated, untreated control.
- 3. The bacteria were allowed to colonize the matrix samples surfaces at the tested temperature (RT or 37°C)
- 4. PBS (control) or SalmoPro® was applied on the samples at the appropriate concentration (10⁷ PFU/g).
- 5. After 30 min of incubation SalmoPro® was applied on the samples at the appropriate concentration (10⁷ PFU/g). 10 mL of peptone water was added and samples were vortexed.
- 6. The number of viable Salmonella in the samples was determined by plating aliquots (0.5 mL) of the peptone water mixture on BGA plates.
- 7. BGA plates were incubated at 37°C for 24-48h and the number of viable *Salmonella* in the samples was determinate by enumerating colonies as follows:

35

Total CFU/g of treated chicken = <u>CFU/mL plated x mL of peptone water</u> g sample analyzed

8. All tests were done in triplicates

H. RESULTS

11.1 Raw data

Table 1: Salmonella plate counts raw data for Study # 15-045 (RT)

Treatment (PFU/mL SalmoPro®)	Weight (g)	Temperature	Bacteria Cocktail B*	10g samples	CFU/g
1 x10 ⁸	10	RT	Yes	3	27
30min					20
					11
1 x10 ⁸	10	RT	Yes	3	130
60min					140
			_		135
PBS 30min	10	RT	Yes	3	275
				1	300
]	375
PBS 60min	10	RT	Yes	3	350
					400
					370

Table 2: Salmonella plate counts raw data for Study #15-045 (37°C)

Treatment (PFU/mL SalmoPro®)	Weight (g)	Temperature (°C)	Bacteria Cocktail B*	10g samples	CFU/g
1 x10 ⁸	10	37	Yes	3	50
30min					58
					86
1 x10 ⁸	10	37	Yes	3	360
60min					120
					270
PBS 30min	10	37	Yes	3	368
					414
					266
PBS 60min	10	37	Yes	3	450
	1				1060
					720

^{*}Cocktail B = S. Heidelberg+ S. Hadar

36

11.2 Tabular presentation is results

Table 3: Reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ® phage solution (1x10⁷ PFU/g) at RT

Treatment (PFU/mL SalmoPro®)	Weight (g)	Temperature (°C)	Replicates	Mean CFU/mL	% reduction	Significant
1 x10 ⁸ 30min	10	RT	n = 3	19	94	Yes
PBS	10	RT	n = 3	317		
1 x10 ⁸ 60min	10	RT	n = 3	135	64	Yes
PBS	10	RT	n = 3	373		

Table 4: Reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ® phage solution (1x10⁷ PFU/g) at 37°C

Treatment (PFU/mL SalmoPro®)	Weight (g)	Temperature (°C)	Replicates	Mean CFU/mL	% reduction	Significant?
1 x10 ⁸ 30min	10	37	n = 3	65	82	Yes
PBS	10	37	n = 3	349		
1 x10 ⁸ 60min	10	37	n = 3	250	66	Yes
PBS	10	37	n = 3	743		

34.3 Graphical representation of cestits

Figure 1: Reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ® phage solution (1x10⁷PFU/g) at RT over time

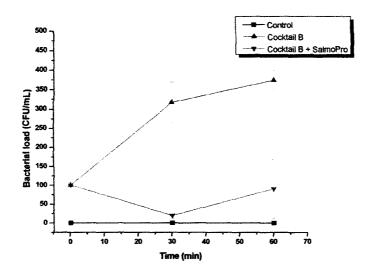
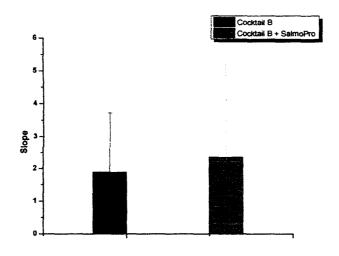


Figure 2: Comparison of growth rates of Salmonella after the initial drop due SalmoPro® treatment at RT



11.4 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 6 for Windows (GraphPad software; San Diego, CA; www.graphpad.com)

- 1- The efficacy of SalmoPro ® treatment in reducing the number of viable Salmonella in the experimentally contaminated chicken samples was evaluated by comparing the data obtained with PBS control samples and SalmoPro® treated samples.
- 2- The efficacy of SalmoPro ® treatment in reducing the number of viable Salmonella at different temperatures in the experimentally contaminated chicken samples was evaluated by comparing the number of viable Salmonella in samples incubated at RT with the number of viable Salmonella in samples incubated at 37°C.
- 3- The efficacy of SalmoPro ® for different incubation times was evaluated by comparing the number of viable *Salmonella* in samples incubated for 30 min with samples incubated for 60 min.

Table 5: Tukey's multiple comparison test ($\alpha = 0.05$): Effect of temperature on the reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ® phage solution ($1x10^7$ PFU/g)

Treatment (PFU/mL SalmoPro®)	Group 1	Group 2	Significant?	Adjusted P value
PBS control	30 min RT	30 min 37°C	No	> 0.9999
	60 min RT	60 min 37°C	No	> 0.9999
Salmonella	30 min RT	30 min 37°C	No	0.9788
	60 min RT	60 min 37°C	Yes	0.0009
SalmoPro® treated samples	30 min RT	30 min 37°C	No	0.9465
	60 min RT	60 min 37°C	No	0.2426

Table 6: Tukey's multiple comparison test ($\alpha = 0.05$): Effect of incubation time on the reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ® phage solution (1x10⁷PFU/g)

Treatment (PFU/mL SaimoPro®)	Group 1	Group 2	Significant?	Adjusted P value
PBS control	30 min RT	60 min RT	No	> 0.9999
	30 min 37°C	60 min 37°C	No	> 0.9999
Salmonella	30 min RT	60 min RT	No	0.9024
	30 min 37°C	60 min 37°C	Yes	0.0004
SalmoPro® treated samples	30 min RT	60 min RT	No	0.8289
	30 min 37°C	60 min 37°C	No	0.1424

Figure 3: Tukey's multiple comparison test ($\alpha = 0.05$): Effect of incubation time on the reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ®

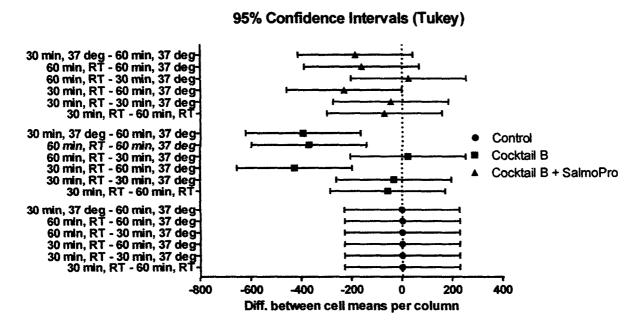
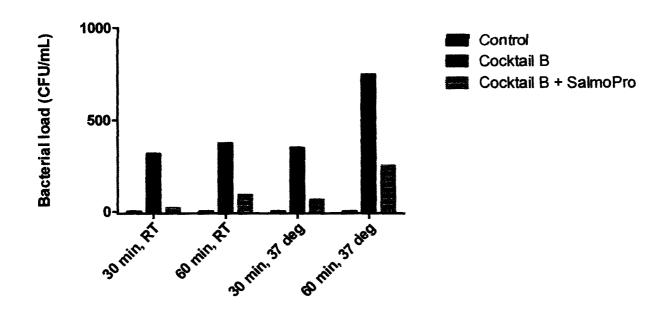


Figure 4: Reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro®



40

11.5 Brief discussion of results and study conclusions

- Applying $1x10^7$ PFU/g of SalmoPro® to chicken trims reduced the number of viable Salmonella by 94 % after 30 min of incubation at room temperature and 64 % after 60 min of incubation at room temperature. The observed reduction was statistically significant (P = <0.001) (Table 3 and Figure 4).
- Applying $1x10^7$ PFU/g of SalmoPro® to chicken trims reduced the number of viable Salmonella by 82 % after 30 min of incubation at 37°C and 66 % after 60 min of incubation at 37°C. The observed reduction was statistically significant (P = <0.001) (Table 4 and Figure 4).
- The challenge study shows that SalmoPro® only has an initial effect during the first 30 minutes of contact with the *Salmonella*-contaminated chicken trims. Residual *Salmonella* proceeded to grow at the same rate as the *Salmonella* present in the untreated samples (Figure 1 and Figure 2).
- Temperature (RT vs 37°C) did not have a significant effect on the efficacy of SalmoPro®.
- Time of incubation did not have a significant effect on the efficacy of SalmoPro® (Figure 3)

12. SUMMARY CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY

SalmoPro® can significantly reduce viable Salmonella (Hadar, Heidelberg) levels in experimentally contaminated chicken trim by 82-94% in 30 min contact time, when used at 1x10⁷ PFU/g. Using a 60 min contact time was not statistically significant, implying that SalmoPro® acts in the initial 30 min of contact time and does not have any residual effect.

13. SIGNATURES

Research scientist

(b) (6)	
	Sql. 28, 2015
Nancy Tawil, Ph.D. Study Director	Date
(b) (6)	2015/09/28
Annie Martineau, M.Sc.	Date

Appendix 2

Evaluation of the ability of SalmoPro® to reduce Salmonella contamination in experimentally contaminated chicken trim.

Study Number # PL15-196

Phagelux Canada Inc.

6100 Royalmount

Montreal, Quebec, H4P 2R2

Table of contents

1. STUDY TITLE	
2. STUDY DIRECTOR	45
3. STUDY PERSONNEL	45
4. PERFORMING LABORATORY	45
5. STUDY OBJECTIVE	46
6. TEST MATRIX	46
7. SALMOPRO® LOT AND APPLICATION RATE	46
8. BACTERIAL STRAINS USED TO EXPERIMENTALLY CONTAMINATE POULTRY	46
9. MEDIA AND REAGENTS	47
10. GENERAL OUTLINE OF STUDY	47
11. RESULTS	48
11.1 Raw data	48
11.2 Tabular presentation of results	48
11.3 Graphical presentation of results	
11.4 Statistical analysis	49
11.5 Brief discussion of results and study conclusions	50
12. SUMMARY CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY	
13 SIGNATURES	51

LORDA HILE

Evaluation of the ability of SalmoPro® to reduce Salmonella contamination in experimentally contaminated chicken trim when applied at a rate 1x10⁷ PFU/g.

2. STUDY DIRECTOR

Nancy Tawil, Ph.D.

3. STUDY PERSONNEL

The following personnel contributed to the conduct and reporting of the studies reported herein:

Name:	Title:	Role:
Nancy Tawil, Ph.D.	Chief Scientist	Study director
Annie Martineau	Research Scientist	Hands-on-research

4. PERFORMING LABORATORY

Phagelux (Canada) Inc. 6100 Royalmount Montreal, Quebec Canada, H4P 2R2

5. STEDY OBJECTIVE

Determine the load reduction resulting from the application of 10⁷ PFU/g SalmoPro® to chicken meat pieces inoculated with artificially high levels of Salmonella.

6. TEST MATRIX

Chicken trims were obtained from a farm located near Montreal, Quebec, Canada. Samples were not washed or pre-treated prior to studies.

7. SALMOPRO® LOT AND APPLICATION RATE

- SalmoPro ® lot # 20150813-2
- SalmoPro ® titer: 1x10⁹ PFU/mL
- The application rate was 0.1 mL SalmoPro® at 10⁸ PFU/mL per gram of poultry for a total applied rate of 1x10⁷ PFU/g poultry.

8. BACTERIAL STRAINS USED TO EXPERIMENTALLY CONTAMINATED POULTRY

Each chicken sample was challenged with a cocktail containing 10² CFU/g Salmonella isolates as indicated below:

Cocktail C (Serovars/Isolates [1:1:1 ratio])

- Salmonella Hadar (Sha-4)
- Salmonella Enteritidis (Se-1) ATCC13076
- Salmonella enterica Newport (INSPQ2348)

The total reduction in Salmonella bacterial load is evaluated.

9. MEDIA AND REAGENTS

- LB (Sigma, St-Louis, MO; catalog # L3022)
- Peptone water (Organo Technie; La Courneuve, France; catalog # E110)
- Brilliant green agar modified (BGA) (Sigma, St-Louis, MO; catalog #70134)
- PBS (HyClone, Thermo Scientific, Logan, Utah; catalog #SH30028-02)

10. GENERAL OUTLINE OF STUDY

- 9. Original trim pieces were cut into three smaller 10 g chicken trim test samples.
- 10. 1mL of the bacterial culture (cocktail) at 10³ CFU/mL was applied on the samples surface evenly. One sample was not treated with bacterial culture as uncontaminated untreated control.
- 11. The bacteria were allowed to colonize the matrix samples surfaces at room temperature (RT).
- 12. PBS (control) or SalmoPro ® was applied on the samples at the appropriate concentration (10⁷ PFU/g).
- 13. After 30 min of incubation, 10mL of peptone water was added and samples were vortexed.
- 14. The number of viable Salmonella in the samples was determined by plating aliquots (0,5mL) of the peptone water mixture on BGA plates.
- 15. BGA plates were incubated at 37°C for 24-48h and the number of viable *Salmonella* in the samples was determinate by enumerating colonies as follows:

Total CFU/g of treated chicken = $\underline{CFU/mL}$ plated x mL of peptone water gram sample analyzed

16. All tests were done in sextuplicates.

II. RESULTS

11.1 Raw data

Table 1: Salmonella plate counts raw data for Study #15-196

Treatment (PFU/mL SalmoPro®)	Weight (g)	Temperature (RT)	Bacteria	10 g samples	CFU/g
1 x10 ⁸	10	RT	Yes	6	206
					184
					138
1					180
					162
					148
PBS	10	RT	Yes	6	2000
					1320
					1480
					1880
					1280
					2040
PBS	10	RT	No	3	0
(chicken control)					0
					0

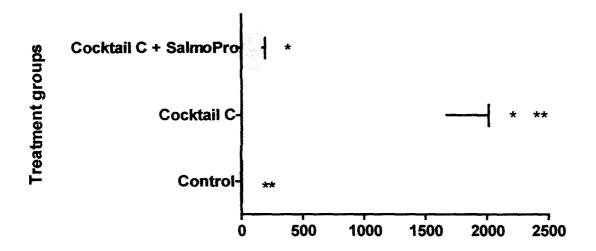
11.2 Tabular presentation of results

Table 2: Reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ® phage solution (1x10⁷ PFU/g) at RT

Treatment (PFU/mL SalmoPro®)	Weight (g)	Temperature (°C)	Replicates	Mean CFU/mL	% reduction	Significant?
1 x10 ⁸	10	RT	n = 6	170	90	Yes
PBS	10	RT	n = 6	1667		
PBS (chicken control)	10	RT	n = 6	0		

11.3 Graphical presentation of casults

Figure 1: Reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ® phage solution (1x10⁷ PFU/g)



Mean bacterial load per gram of chicken (CFU/g)

11.4 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 6 for Windows (GraphPad software; San Diego, CA; www.graphpad.com)

The efficacy of SalmoPro® treatment in reducing the number of viable Salmonella in the experimentally contaminated chicken samples was evaluated by comparing the data obtained with PBS control samples and SalmoPro® treated samples.

Table 3: Tukey's multiple comparison test ($\alpha = 0.05$): Reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ® phage solution (1x10⁷PFU/g)

Tuckey's comparison test	Significant ?	Summary	Adjusted P value	Groups
Control vs. Cocktail C	Yes	****	< 0.0001	A-B
Control vs. Cocktail C + SalmoPro®	No	ns	0.5496	A-C
Cocktail C vs. Cocktail C + SalmoPro®	Yes	****	< 0.0001	B-C

14.5 Brief discussion of results and study conclusions

Applying $1x10^7$ PFU/g of SalmoPro® to chicken trims reduced the number of viable Salmonella by 90% after 30 min of incubation at room temperature. The observed reduction was statistically significant (P = <0.0001)

12. SEMMARY CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY

SalmoPro® can significantly reduce viable *Salmonella* levels in experimentally contaminated chicken trim by 90% in 30min contact time, when used at 1x10⁷ PFU/g.

13. SIGNATURES

Research scientist

(b) (6)	
w	Sept. 28, 2015
Nancy Tayvil, Ph.D. Study Director	Date
(b) (6)	
	2015/09/28
Annie Martineau, M.Sc.	Date

Appendix 3

Evaluation of the ability of SalmoPro® to reduce Salmonella contamination in experimentally contaminated chicken trim.

Study Number # PL15-197

Phagelux Canada Inc.

6100 Royalmount

Montreal, QC H4P 2R2

Table of contents

1. STUDY TITLE	E A
2. STUDY DIRECTOR	54
3. STUDY PERSONNEL	54
4. PERFORMING LABORATORY	54
5. STUDY OBJECTIVE	55
6. TEST MATRIX	55
7. SALMOPRO® LOT AND APPLICATION RATE	55
8. BACTERIAL STRAINS USED TO EXPERIMENTALLY CONTAMINATE POULTRY	55
9. MEDIA AND REAGENTS	56
10. GENERAL OUTLINE OF STUDY	56
11. RESULTS	57
11.1 Raw data	57
11.2 Tabular presentation of results	57
11.3 Graphical presentation of results	58
11.4 Statistical analysis	59
11.5 Brief discussion of results and study conclusions	59
12. SUMMARY CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY	59
13. SIGNATURES	59

I. SILDY TITLE

Evaluation of the ability of SalmoPro® to reduce Salmonella contamination in experimentally contaminated chicken trim when applied at a rate 1x10⁷ PFU/g.

2. STUDY DIRECTOR

Nancy Tawil, Ph.D.

3. STUDY PERSONNEL

The following personnel contributed to the conduct and reporting of the studies reported herein:

Name:	Title:	Role:
Nancy Tawil, Ph.D.	Chief Scientist	Study director
Annie Martineau	Research Scientist	Hands-on-research

4. PERFORMING LABORATORY

Phagelux (Canada) Inc. 6100 Royalmount Montreal, Quebec Canada, H4P 2R2

S. STUDY OBJECTIVE

Determine the load reduction resulting from the application of 10⁷ PFU/g SalmoPro® to chicken meat trims inoculated with artificially high levels of Salmonella.

6. TEST MATRIX

Chicken trims were obtained from a farm located near Montreal, Quebec, Canada.

Samples were not washed or pre-treated prior to studies.

7. NALMOPROR LOT AND APPLICATION RATE

- SalmoPro ® lot # 20150813-3
- SalmoPro ® titer: 1x10⁹ PFU/mL
- The application rate was 0.1 mL SalmoPro® at 10⁸ PFU/mL per gram of poultry for a total applied rate of 1x10⁷ PFU/g poultry.

8. BACTERIAL STRAINS USED TO EXPERIMENTALLY CONTAMINATE POULTRY

Each chicken sample was challenged with a cocktail containing 10³ CFU/g Salmonella isolates as indicated below:

Cocktail C (Serovars/Isolates [1:1:1 ratio])

- Salmonella Hadar (Sha-4)
- Salmonella Enteritidis (Se-1) ATCC13076
- Salmonella enterica Newport (INSPQ2348)

The total reduction in Salmonella bacterial load is evaluated.

4 MEDIA AND REAGENTS

- LB (Sigma, St-Louis, MO; catalog # L3022)
- Peptone water (Organo Technie; La Courneuve, France; catalog # E110)
- Brilliant green agar modified (BGA) (Sigma, St-Louis, MO; catalog #70134)
- PBS (HyClone, Thermo Scientific, Logan, Utah; catalog #SH30028-02)

10. GENERAL OF TUDY

- 17. Original trim pieces were cut into three smaller 10 g chicken trim test samples.
- 18. ImL of the bacterial culture (cocktail) at 10³ CFU/mL was applied on the samples surface evenly. One sample was not treated with bacterial culture as the uncontaminated, untreated control.
- 19. The bacteria were allowed to colonize the matrix samples surfaces at 37°C for 20 min.
- 20. PBS (control) or SalmoPro ® was applied on the samples at the appropriate concentration (10⁷ PFU/g).
- 21. After 30 min of incubation, 10 mL of peptone water was added, and samples were vortexed.
- 22. The number of viable Salmonella in the samples was determined by plating aliquots (0,5mL) of the peptone water mixture on BGA plates.
- 23. BGA plates were incubated at 37°C for 24-48h and the number of viable *Salmonella* in the samples was determined by enumerating colonies as follows:

Total CFU/g of treated chicken = $\underline{CFU/mL}$ plated x mL of peptone water gram sample analyzed

24. All tests were done in sextuplicates.

H. RESULTS

11.1 Raw data

Table 1: Salmonella plate counts Raw data for Study #15-197

Treatment (PFU/mL SalmoPro®)	Weight (g)	Temperature (°C)	Bacteria	10g samples	CFU/g
1 x10 ⁸	10	37	Yes	6	86
					106
					38
					76
					106
	i				150
PBS	10	37	Yes	6	1340
		,			1240
					1840
					1480
					980
					1300
PBS	10	37	No	3	0
(chicken					0
control)					0

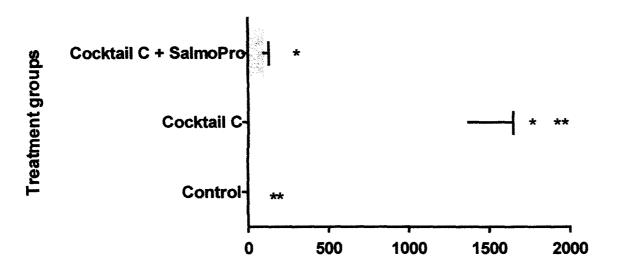
11.2 Tabular presentation of results

Table 2: Reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ® phage solution (1x10⁷ PFU/g) at 37°C

Treatment (PFU/mL SalmoPro®)	Weight (g)	Temperature (°C)	Replicates	Mean CFU/mL	% reduction	Significant?
1 x10 ⁸	10	37	n = 6	94	93	Yes
PBS	10	37	n = 6	1363		
PBS (chicken control)	10	37	n = 6	0		

11.3 Graphical presentation of results

Figure 1: One way ANOVA: Reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ® phage solution (1x10⁷ PFU/g)



Mean bacterial load per gram of chicken (CFU/g)

11.4 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 6 for Windows (GraphPad software; San Diego, CA; www.graphpad.com)

The efficacy of SalmoPro ® treatment in reducing the number of viable Salmonella in the experimentally contaminated chicken samples was evaluated by comparing the data obtained with PBS control samples and SalmoPro® treated samples.

Table 3: Tukey's multiple comparison test ($\alpha = 0.05$): Reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ® phage solution (1x10⁷PFU/g)

Tuckey's comparison test	Significant?	Summary	Adjusted P value	Groups
Control vs. Cocktail C	Yes	****		
			< 0.0001	A-B
Control vs. Cocktail C + SalmoPro®	No	ns		
			0.7608	A-C
Cocktail C vs. Cocktail C + SalmoPro®	Yes	****		
			< 0.0001	B-C

ELS Pries discussion of rewater and soudy condustons

Applying $1x10^7$ PFU/g of SalmoPro® to chicken trims reduced the number of viable Salmonella by 93% after 30 min of incubation at 37°C. The observed reduction was statistically significant (P = <0.001)

12. SUMMARY CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY

13. SIGNATURES

Annie Martineau, M.Sc.

Research scientist

SalmoPro® can significantly reduce viable *Salmonella* levels in experimentally contaminated chicken trim by 93% in 30 min contact time at 37°C, when used at 1x10⁷PFU/g.

(b) (6) | Sept 28, 2015 | | Nancy Tawil, Ph.D. | Date | | Study Director |

59

2015/09/28

Date

Appendix 4

Evaluation of the continued effect of SalmoPro® on Salmonella contaminated chicken trim.

Study Number # PL15-191

Phagelux Canada Inc.

6100 Royalmount

Montreal, Quebec H4P 2R2

Table of contents

1. STUDY TITLE 62	
2. STUDY DIRECTOR62	<u> </u>
3. STUDY PERSONNEL	<u>!</u>
4. PERFORMING LABORATORY	<u> </u>
5. STUDY OBJECTIVE	5
6. TEST MATRIX63	5
7. SALMOPRO® LOT AND APPLICATION RATE63	į.
8. BACTERIAL STRAINS USED TO EXPERIMENTALLY CONTAMINATE POULTRY	\$
9. MEDIA AND REAGENTS	ļ
10. GENERAL OUTLINE OF STUDY	
11. RESULTS	
11.1 Raw data	65
11.2 Tabular presentation of results	65
11.3 Graphical presentation of results	66
11.4 Statistical analysis	67
11.5 Brief discussion of results and study conclusions	69
12. SUMMARY CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY 70)
13. SIGNATURES)

Evaluation of the continued effect at 4°C of SalmoPro® on Salmonella contaminated chicken trim when applied at a rate 1x10⁷ PFU/g.

2. STEDY DIRECTOR

Nancy Tawil, Ph.D.

3. STUDY PERSONNEL

The following personnel contributed to the conduct and reporting of the studies reported herein:

Name:	Title:	Role:
Nancy Tawil, Ph.D.	Chief Scientist	Study director
Annie Martineau	Research Scientist	Hands-on-research

4. PERFORMING LABORATORY

Phagelux (Canada) Inc. 6100 Royalmount Montreal, Quebec Canada, H4P 2R2

S. STUDY OBJECTIVE

Determine the bacterial load resulting from the application of 10⁷ PFU/g SalmoPro® to chicken meat pieces inoculated with artificially high levels of Salmonella and stored at 4°C for 5 days to evaluate the continued effect of the phage preparation.

6. TEST MATRIX

Chicken trims were obtained from a farm located near Montreal, Quebec, Canada. Samples were not washed or pre-treated prior to studies.

7. SALMOPROS LOT AND APPLICATION RATE

- SalmoPro ® lot # 20150813-1
- SalmoPro ® titer: 1x109PFU/mL
- The application rate was 0.1 mL SalmoPro® at 10⁸ PFU/mL per gram of poultry for a total applied rate of 1x10⁷ PFU/g poultry.

8. BACTERIAL STRAINS USED TO EXPERIMENTALLY CONTAMINATE POULTRY

Each chicken sample was challenged with a cocktail containing 10² CFU/g Salmonella isolates as indicated below:

Cocktail (Serovars/Isolates [1:1:1 ratio])

- Salmonella Hadar (Sha-4)
- Salmonella Enteritidis (Se-1) ATCC13076
- Salmonella enterica Newport (INSPQ2348)

The total reduction in Salmonella bacterial load is evaluated.

9. MEDIA AND REAGENTS

- LB (Sigma, St-Louis, MO; catalog # L3022)
- Peptone water (Organo Technie; La Courneuve, France; catalog # E110)
- Brilliant green agar modified (BGA) (Sigma, St-Louis, MO; catalog #70134)
- PBS (HyClone, Thermo Scientific, Logan, Utah; catalog #SH30028-02)

10. GENERAL OUTLINE OF STUDY

- 25. Original trim pieces were cut into three smaller 10 g chicken trim test samples.
- 26. 1mL of the bacterial culture (cocktail) at 10² CFU/g was applied on the samples surface evenly. One sample was not treated with bacterial culture as uncontaminated untreated control.
- 27. The bacteria were allowed to colonize the matrix samples surfaces at 37°C.
- 28. PBS (control) or SalmoPro ® was applied on the samples at the appropriate concentration (10⁷ PFU/g).
- 29. After 30min of incubation, 10 mL of peptone water was added and samples were vortexed.
- 30. The number of viable Salmonella in the samples was determined by plating aliquots of the peptone water mixture on BGA plates.
- 31. BGA plates were incubated at 37°C for 24-48h and the number of viable *Salmonella* in the samples was determinate by enumerating colonies as follows:

Total CFU/g of treated chicken = $\underline{CFU/mL}$ plated x mL of peptone water

gram sample analyzed

- 32. All samples were stored at 4°C for 8 days and the number of viable Salmonella was determined as in steps 6 and 7 at different times.
- 33. All tests were done in triplicates.

H. RESULTS

11.1 Raw data

Table to this duty he state \$15-191

Treatment (PFU/mL SalmoPro®)	Weight (g)	Temperature (°C)	Bacteria	10g samples	CFU/g pre- storage	CFU/g After 5 days at 4°C	CFU/g After 8 days at 4°C
1 x10 ⁸	10	RT	Yes	3	32	32	220
					34	36	100
					26	28	40
PBS	10	RT	Yes	3	138	1000	880
					166	1000	1160
					184	600	700
PBS	10	RT	No	3	0	0	0
(chicken					0	0	0
control)					0	0	0

11.2 Tabular presentation of results

Table 2: Residual effect of SalmoPro® on Salmonella counts in chicken trims when applied at $1x10^7$ PFU/g stored for 5 and 8 days at 4° C

Treatment (pfu/ml SalmoPro®)	4°C Storage time	Weight (g)	Temperature (°C)	Replicates	Mean CFU/g	Standard deviation
1 x10 ⁸	0	10	RT	n = 3	31	4
PBS	0	10	RT	n = 3	163	23
1×10 ⁸	5d	10	4	n = 3	32	4
PBS	5d	10	4	n = 3	867	231
1x10 ⁸	8d	10	4	n = 3	120	91
PBS	8d	10	4	n = 3	913	232

11.3 Graphical presentation of results

Figure 1: Initial reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ® phage solution (1x10⁷PFU/g) at RT (initial 30 min)

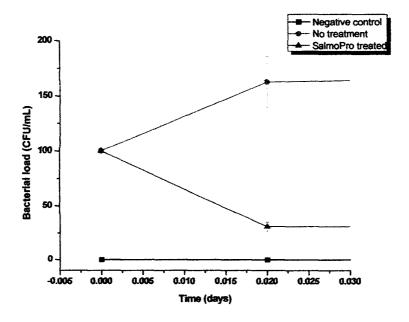


Figure 2: Reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ® phage solution (1x10⁷PFU/g) at RT over time

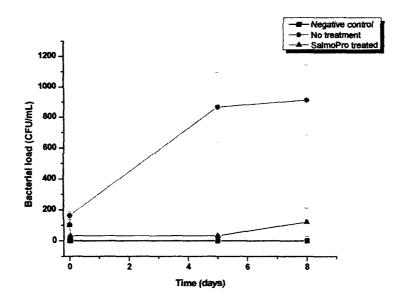
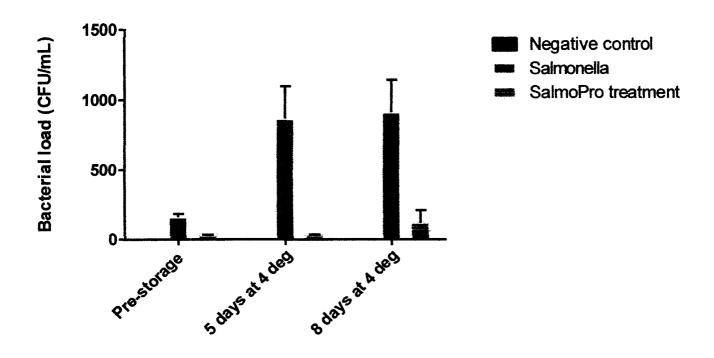


Figure 3: Reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ®



11.4 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using version GraphPad Prism 6for Windows (GraphPad software; San Diego, CA; www.graphpad.com)

The efficacy of SalmoPro ® treatment in reducing the number of viable Salmonella in the experimentally contaminated chicken samples was evaluated by comparing the data obtained with PBS control samples and SalmoPro® treated samples.

The continued effect of SalmoPro ® was evaluated by comparing the data obtained at time 30 min, after 5 days at 4°C, and after 8 days at 4°C.

Table 3: Sidak's multiple comparison test ($\alpha = 0.05$): Effect of storage on the reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ® phage solution ($1x10^7$ PFU/g)

SalmoPro® vs untreated samples	Significant?	Adjusted P value
Initial reduction (pre-incubation)	Yes	< 0.0001
5 days post-incubation	No	0.9794
8 days post-incubation	No	> 0.9999

Figure 4: Effect of storage on Salmonella growth rate. Comparison between untreated chicken trims and chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ®

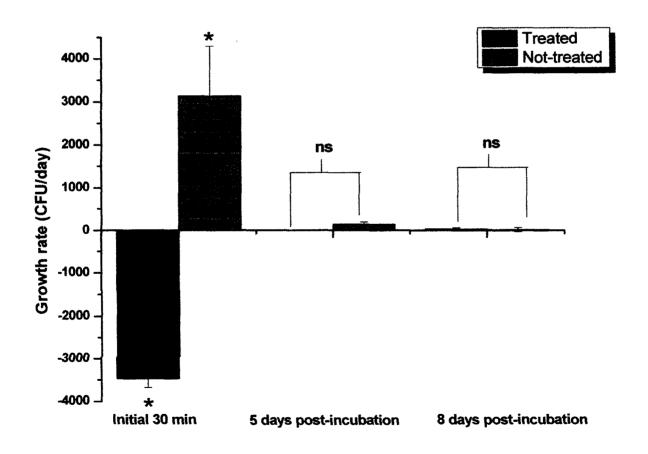
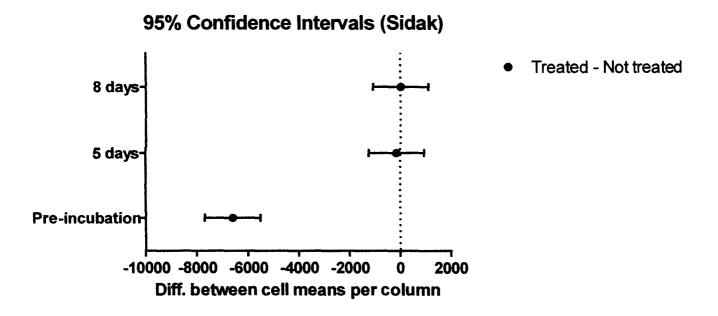


Figure 6: Sidak's multiple comparison test ($\alpha = 0.05$): Effect of storage on the reduction of Salmonella counts in chicken trims treated with SalmoPro ®



11.5 Brief discussion of results and study conclusions

The results clearly show that there is a significant initial reduction in the Salmonella counts of chicken trims when treated with SalmoPro®.

SalmoPro® treatment did not have a significant effect on the growth rate of Salmonella after prolonged storage at 4°C (5 days and 8 days).

12. SUMMARY CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY

SalmoPro® provides an initial, momentary antibacterial effect on treated poultry, and provides no continued technical effect. These results, combined to the fact that SalmoPro® is present in the finished products at insignificant levels, makes SalmoPro® a processing aid, as defined by the FDA in section 21 CFR101.100 (a) (3).

13. SIGNATURES

(b) (6)	
	Sept. 28, 2015
Nancy/Tawil, Ph.D. Study Director	Date
(b) (6)	2015/09/28
Annie Martineau, M.Sc. Research scientist	Date

SUBMISSION END